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Progressive Principles of Discipline

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Many laymen and a few teachers are hazy on just what marks the line between freedom and license in the progressive school. The common fault is to allow too much rope too soon, and kinks and tangles result which sometimes develop Gordian complexities. From old New England—the author writes from the Connecticut State Department of Education—comes this set of well-considered principles of discipline. We endorse them as principles wholly valid for application in the public schools where American youth must achieve the unique discipline prerequisite for effective citizenship in a democracy.

IN ORDER to understand the meaning of the large amount of freedom now often advocated in schools, it is necessary to analyze critically the meaning and processes of freedom and discipline or self-control. Many opportunistic educators have failed to recognize that freedom is not a natural gift or an inalienable right. It is rather a condition to be achieved only through regularity and disciplinary processes, something to be gained in the same sense that health is attained through avoidance of overwork, plenty of exercise, proper choice of food.

In man's efforts to win freedom from the forces which oppress him from without, he has often failed to realize that those which attack from within may be much more dangerous and disastrous in their effects. For instance, there is no real freedom at times for the man who is driven by his basal passions, his hungers for narcotics or poisons, his hatreds and prejudices, his inability to exercise reasonable self-control in everyday matters, and in his attempt to escape natural laws which compel him to be unselfish, to

be social, and to live an ethical life. Such a man may find economic security in his millions of dollars but each eagle is only a pair of eyes which sees that he has little conception of the way nature has dealt the cards of life. Man must play the game of life according to the rules of nature! One of the most important of those rules is that we achieve freedom through discipline, not through dissipation. Children become full personalities only as they are able to rise above their petty prejudices, hates, impulsiveness, fears, desires to exploit; in short, all unsocial conduct and neuroses.

It is difficult to explain the modern conception of discipline because many cannot see how freedom helps pupils achieve better self-control. They still seem to think that human nature can be molded from without if only we make the mold strong enough. No public school can possibly succeed in forcing children to behave as they do not desire to behave; they can do largely as they please during the many out-of-school hours. Pupils must be genuinely disciplined from

within. They themselves must purpose and want to do the things which are believed to be the most desirable. Thus they must be offered an infinite number of opportunities to practise the use of self-control or discipline in order to master it as they learn other fundamentals.

Traditional methods of control rob children of the opportunity to practise choosing and evaluating—to learn how to use freedom by using it. The teachers usually dominate the situation so closely that children learn little about self-control; they merely learn to obey, conform, and acquiesce which is poor training for life in a complex, evolving social order.

It is of primary importance to recognize that pupils learn how to use freedom only by using freedom, that they learn self-control by doing such things as staying in the room when they might leave, by not whispering or bothering another when they are free to do so, by being quiet when they could be noisy, and by leaving the room only when necessary even though they could leave much more often if they chose to do so. The basic emotions of fear, anger, sex, love, and hate also emerge in the more natural environment where the teacher has a chance to observe them and to help children control them. Emotions should not be suppressed until the child is away from the school and unobserved.

The freedom in the new schools is not intended to breed license and lawlessness; it is necessary in order that children learn to use it exactly as books are needed that children learn to read and paints that they may learn to paint. Like reading and painting materials, too, in good schools freedom is granted according to the ability of the specific group to use it advantageously. It is unwise to expect young children to know how and to be able to use large amounts of freedom to greatest advantage because they will not accept the accompanying responsibilities. They should be supervised in accordance with their specific needs and abilities. We challenge high-school principals in

whose schools today we find so much red tape and so little pupil freedom to prove that their pupils are learning anything about freedom. They have not moved a peg since they enrolled in the kindergarten. They must be watched, checked, and double checked as the boys in reform schools—to see that they obey the rules which tend to become stupid ends rather than helpful means. To the degree that schools are effective, pupils should learn increasingly more and more how to use freedom, to make choices, and should be given opportunities to do so. It is hoped that the following brief principles of discipline will help others in the matters of freedom, discipline, and self-control.

1. *Discipline may be thought of as the process of developing original native endowment into culture, efficiency, and power.* Discipline which enables one to be responsible for his own conduct and decisions is necessary to change the youth who is impulsive, crude, inefficient, self-centered, flighty, and uncontrolled to an adult who is unselfish, poised, effective, integrated, and efficient! This is a long, perilous journey which many never complete because of the enormous amount of energy and suffering which is required. The broad path of retaining childish emotional, social, and physical traits is much better adapted to those who fail to realize that life is an unfolding process of moving to progressively higher planes or stages of conduct. They fixate early. Even many who climb rather high often suffer from infantile regression and fail to maintain their accomplishment. Growth in self-discipline is a continuous process which begins at birth!

Teachers should remember that it requires a long time for an individual to develop desirable control of his emotions and inner urges and thus gain capacity to behave wisely and effectively. Many adults still find they want to do many things other than that which they should do and that they occasionally get silly, blue, angry, depressed, or overelated. Also they have a tendency to overeat, oversleep, smoke too much, eat at

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wrong hours, avoid getting sufficient exercise, use slang unnecessarily, get angry, love unwisely, dislike others, say the wrong things, read the wrong types of literature, or play when they should work. We should learn to be tolerant and sympathetic with children who should not be expected to be models of adult behavior. However, they should be progressing toward desirable ways of behaving, gaining better understanding, and better technique. They should learn early that they must earn poise and control by the sweat of their brows. It cannot be secured by money or inherited.

2. *The basic aim of discipline is to help each pupil develop desire and capacity to control himself so as to achieve the other purposes of education.* Each pupil through practice must learn how to make reasoned, impersonal adjustments rather than react according to his own selfish, personal wants and welfare. He must develop a capacity to curb such dominating impulses and emotions as fear, anger, sex, stealing, hunger, and hate, and direct them toward the realization of self-imposed, worthy, individual, and social purposes. He must learn to surrender voluntarily personal things for the sake of greater gain at a later period. This is necessary to promote a healthy happiness which comes from voluntarily sacrificing for another by giving up part of one's individuality. In short, one of the first laws of life is to learn to control oneself because it is needed in all phases of experience. Unless one has learned to control himself, he cannot hope to control others effectively because they will soon lose confidence in him.

Each person must act according to the interests, needs, and welfare of others as well as of self; i.e., self-control or discipline is most essential in life. Pupils must not only develop the capacity to control themselves; they must also develop an adequate philosophy of life which recognizes that they themselves by their own actions learn to direct their own actions.

3. *Pupils probably develop as much or more self-control from doing things in which*

they are interested and which satisfy wants as from those which are disagreeable and boring. There is always the danger that unless children plan carefully and are closely supervised they will form the habit of doing only the easy, interesting things and will avoid the difficult things which require hard work and continuous application. Pupils are likely to become the victims of their own selfish interests unless the program is planned and carried out so that they will continually be challenged to do the things which are believed worthy and necessary for them to do.

A famous psychologist when asked what should be done about the boy who refused to learn to write because he did not see any need for it now that typewriters are available replied: "Build the walls around him so high that he will need to write in order to climb over them." Here we have the essence of the new method of getting children to do the things generally considered desirable. Children must be brought into situations where they will desire to read, write, construct, create. There is no doubt that many people have benefited in the past by learning things which were uninteresting; it should be said, however, that, had these things been preceded by the proper experiences and experienced in a different manner, most of them could have been learned much more effectively. The new school does not approve of the old theory of mental discipline.

4. *Disciplinary measures or methods of control should be definite, clearly understood, and based upon reason.* Adults who refuse in each case to make clear the purpose of a disciplinary measure should be under suspicion because they are being autocratic and dictatorial rather than democratic. They are failing to respect the wishes, rights, and personality of the child and to capitalize upon the learning situations that grow out of a disciplinary case. If pupils are to act wisely, they should understand the general, underlying principles of human relations so they will comprehend and appre-

ciate the reasons for such things as why they must not bother others unnecessarily, must put things away, not be a bully or cheat, must complete each task, be at school on time, avoid getting angry, love their associates, avoid overdoing anything, and be courteous. If they do not understand, they will not be able to meet the new social situations which they inevitably will meet in the future.

All disciplinary measures should be as definite as possible in order to avoid misunderstanding which fosters subsequent problems. If they are not definite, pupils are likely to feel that they are not being dealt with fairly because they did not understand the rules. The reasons for them often may be taken up advantageously in the discussion of the social problems of other groups or of the problems that arise in their own group. The teachers must assume the major responsibility for explaining these reasons to young pupils. Even with young pupils, however, it should be recognized that they will never learn to control themselves as long as they are controlled by those arbitrary methods by an adult who is not capable and desirous of helping them understand the underlying principles which should be followed in human conduct.

5. *Every disciplinary case should be a problem for scientific inquiry.* Bailey,¹ an English critic, has so excellently pointed out the need of understanding pupils rather than whipping them that his words are challenging food for thought: "The lash has gone from the army and the navy; the whipping post or the cart-whip is no longer an available amusement for the general public. There is still the child at school who may be beaten and it is cheaper and simpler to beat him than to understand him and keep him usefully at work." When a pupil cannot read, figure, or write, one should try to find out the reason through diagnostic tests and scientific observations. Likewise, when a pupil plays truant, cheats, disobeys,

one should carefully try to determine causes, not merely deal with effects or symptoms. Often he is merely told that he should be different as though by the process of magic he can change his conduct. Every boy who does wrong at school should be the subject of scientific inquiry. The history of his family and himself should be thoroughly studied. The motives behind his conduct should be determined and interpreted to him; he should be encouraged to state freely all his ideas on any subject that is troubling him no matter how unsocial and erroneous they may be. The teacher should be sympathetic and avoid the attitude of a moral censor or critic, since this will stop any further confidence at once.

In order to determine the underlying causes of maladjustment it is usually necessary to make a study of the home background. In some cases a complete historical study must be made by a specially prepared social worker or psychologist. The following recommendations of a psychiatrist for the remedial treatment of a boy committed to a private institution of delinquency excellently illustrate modern methods of handling delinquents:

1. Removal from home situation because of the intense clash with father
2. Placement in boarding school or institution
3. Opportunity for carrying responsibility and assuming some position of authority
4. Infinite patience and guidance; no force should be used in handling the patient
5. Opportunity to choose and to follow his own recreation, school and hobby interests
6. An opportunity to choose a young man as a friend, some one who is objective, fair, and consistent
7. Encouragement in every success that he experiences in overcoming any antagonism to authority
8. Inclusion, whenever possible, in group activities, such activities to be chosen on the basis of the boy's interests and ability
9. Not too much attention to deviations and rebellion reactions
10. Interpretations to the boy of his own behavior; this to be done gradually and with great patience and only in small doses

¹ *Tyrannies of the School*, by C. W. Bailey (London: Blackie and Son, 1928), p. 25.

11. Interpretations to the patient of the foregoing treatment and fairly frequent contacts of the boy and the father is recommended as treatment is worked out

The foregoing recommendations point out the complexity of many disciplinary cases which must be dealt with in schools which seldom understand the trouble or are prepared to meet the situation adequately. Only those persons who have been especially educated are able to deal with the difficult cases of delinquency which are present in all schools whether they recognize them or not. This usually means that there should be a special teacher, social worker, psychologist, or psychiatrist on the professional staff of every school. It is useless to attempt to get some children interested in academic activities until they have become adequately adjusted emotionally, socially, or physically since these may prevent them from making normal adjustment.

A program or plan of maintaining order or discipline cannot be a blanket affair. Every technic must be adjusted to the needs, experiences, capacities, and problems of each pupil because the causes of misbehavior are so different that they require individual treatment. The teacher must recognize that the pupil is trying to make satisfactory adjustments and must learn how successfully the child is making these adjustments. Children should not be considered normal, stubborn, or tractable in any eulogistic or derogatory sense. They should not be blamed in any retributive sense but their conduct should be thought of as the result of certain heredity and a certain environment.

6. *Each pupil should endeavor to analyze his own behavior problems.* There are several reasons why as far as possible this should be done: It should help him introspect and observe himself as a member of a social group. It will cause him to think and study about the processes of experience so that he will better understand why he is afraid, loves excessively or abnormally, cannot concentrate satisfactorily, becomes

nervous, dislikes certain things, becomes disintegrated, gets angry. He will feel the responsibility for carrying out these measures as his own rather than acting under compulsion. It will cause him to understand better his interests, capacities, idiosyncrasies, needs, and aptitudes. It is democratic. In the execution of this principle the pupils must be carefully guided and advised so that they can make as correct an analysis as possible and outline wise remedial measures. For example, a teacher who wished to lead several members of the group to better manners encouraged them to write essays upon this subject, notice others, read literature, etc.

7. *Pupils must practise control with satisfaction in desirable situations in order to learn how to control themselves.* "Practice makes perfect, training tells." In the same sense that athletes must practise hundreds of hours in order to be good jumpers, boxers, runners, or ball players, pupils must have abundance of practice in control or discipline in order to master their natural or acquired undesirable fears, anger, impulses, whims, jealousies, loquaciousnesses, gregariousnesses, etc., and develop desirable skills, attitudes, habits, and controls. The freedom in the new school in part is a recognition of the fact that pupils must be granted opportunities to practise voluntary control when they might do otherwise. As long as the teacher dominates the situation and exerts all the control, there are no opportunities for pupils to learn how to control themselves because the teacher robs them of this opportunity. Practice, however, should be satisfying in order to promote the formation of correct habits. Thus the school should endeavor to provide as many opportunities for practising control in the classroom, on hikes, in laboratories, playing games, making reports, speaking to the group, social parties, in the libraries, leading others, during lunch period, practising skills. Rowdiness, however, should not be permitted.

8. *Conduct goals should be expressed*

positively as stimuli to desirable benefits rather than negatively or as punishments. Incentives or motives should be positive stimuli to encourage pupils to grow up and become bigger and finer personalities rather than remind them of punishment in case of undesirable conduct. Threats of punishment produce an undesirable, mental hygienic condition which is bound to thwart the development of the personality of the child. Rather he should be given something for which to live, some purpose such as to be a great teacher, mechanic, social order, pianist, or business man which will so compensate him that he will direct his energies toward the realization of that objective.

Although schools have made slow progress toward adopting positive incentives or suggestions, they have moved a long way from the kind of discipline Horace Mann² found in his visits over the State of Massachusetts. He describes one scene as follows:

A pupil caught in the act of delinquency is made to take a place on the platform . . . and there to watch for other delinquents. When he detects any one of his schoolmates in a violation of any of the rules of the school, he is expected to announce the name of the offender and the offense. If not contradicted or although contradicted, yet if confirmed, he is absolved and returns to his seat, and the new culprit succeeds to the post and to the office of sentinel. Here he is expected to remain until, in his turn, he can obtain his discharge by successfully inculcating another. Such a watchman is usually called a monitor, but his real office is that of a spy. . . . If the original culprit does not succeed in detecting a fellow pupil in some offense he receives a punishment.

It is easy to observe why the foregoing method of maintaining order is psychologically unsound since it constantly suggests cheating, delinquency, spying, and puts a premium upon delinquency for the monitor who must remain on duty until another has committed some offense and been caught.

As stated in this principle, the suggestions or stimuli which stimulate and guide chil-

dren to act should be wholesome and worthwhile; e.g., "be coöperative and thoughtful," "respect the rights of others," "work quietly," "help others," "be fair and honest," "be a good citizen," "put things away when finished with them," "speak only in a low tone," "do the work of a day in a day," and "be courteous." Many schools have proved that when children are thoroughly familiar with the fundamental purposes of education and have a satisfactory educational program, they generally have correct stimuli so there is no need to command them "not to run," "not to whisper," "not to leave the room," "not to throw paper balls," or "not to fool around." They are too busy doing interesting worth-while things to waste time puttering around.

9. *Discipline should not be imposed from without but should be secured by enlisting the coöperation of pupils in worthy, purposeful experiences.* Problems of self-control, like problems of skills, knowledges, or habits, should be solved by the coöperation of the teacher, parents, and others. Pupils should experience a felt need, an urge or desire to act differently than they do now; for example, to be more thoughtful, studious, responsible, or appreciative. They should purpose to act the new way because they understand the reasons for it and desire to avoid the problems which arise out of the old ways of acting. The objectives toward which they are striving should be satisfying and worthy ends in themselves and not means to gain a prize or other material profit. They should be means for greater, richer, and fuller living.

Creative, inspirational leadership is highly essential for satisfactory control. Modern youths no longer are willing to accept the ideas of another merely because he puts himself over them or is put over them by fortuitous circumstances. They will follow only those adults who inspire confidence such as Washington during the Revolutionary War and a desire to follow their worthiness of leadership. In fact this is the kind of leader-

² Horace Mann, Report of the Secretary, State Board of Education, Massachusetts, 1845.

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ship in any kind of organization—business, educational, military, social—that really counts. Executives and teachers can make others goose-step and march if they wish to use the discipline of force, but by such methods they gain only temporary objectives and promote no real discipline or control. They have not satisfactorily changed the basic habits, attitudes, and ideals of the persons controlled. Parents and teachers may compel a boy to say, "Yes, sir," and snap his heels. This looks impressive and pretty but it does not imply that the boy carries that "Yes, sir" spirit into his activities when away from them. Real discipline often comes from associating with those who are capable of leading and are looked to naturally for this leadership. Discipline grows out of creative, intelligent leadership which does not seek to dictate but rather to work out adequate measures coöperatively.

Teachers who wish to secure the willing respect for authority must also respect the personality of the child, win his confidence, and remove his fears. The tyranny of formal discipline cannot exist where children are dealt with squarely, are cheerfully occupied, and their interests recognized in an environment of happy, suitable experiences. Bailey stresses the need of using coöperative, democratic methods as follows: "The advocates of vigorous authority and an unquestioned obedience have in mind the organization of an army."

10. *Pupils should gain control by systematically developing numerous, worthy interests.* Disciplinary measures should be positive and constructive rather than a long list of *don'ts*! Pupils who have outlined something worth while to live for seldom are disciplinary problems in school. Since the majority of discipline problems are caused by lack of interest in schoolwork, one of the sources of successful discipline is to help pupils discover and develop new and varied interests which absorb their energies and time. Many a boy, for instance, has been saved through the development of challeng-

ing interests in radio, aeroplanes, animals, art, music, camping or farming.

11. *Teachers should see that order is maintained through skillful guidance and diplomacy rather than by demanding unquestioning obedience and sustained, forced effort.* There is something seriously wrong with the teacher who has to use force or threats in order to control pupils. By virtue of her position, her understanding, and her personality, each teacher should naturally be accepted by the pupils as the person finally in control of the classroom. As desirable opportunities appear, she should discuss the problems of discipline with the pupils in order to help them gain better understanding of the nature of responsibility and privilege, of self-control, and of the regulations which must be exercised in any group. To demand blind obedience is educationally undesirable since it minimizes the need of giving each pupil opportunities to think, to judge, and to practise self-direction, all of which are necessary for life in a changing democracy. The obedient child also becomes habitually unable to rely on his own judgment.

An excellent picture of the old discipline which tried to ensure a definite kind of behavior, silence, and immobility in the classroom is summarized in the following description of control in a well-known private institution for juvenile delinquents! "In one schoolroom the pupils sit, motionless, with masklike faces, apparently dead, but probably not. Here is discipline. In another room, the pupils leer at the visitor, sneer at the teacher, and twiddle sundry possessions in their fingers. There is no discipline here and we realize that this teacher is marked for dismissal." The situation is seldom as bad as this in the public schools but certainly it can be improved by the adoption of modern methods. "The first rule in regard to disciplining children or punishing them," according to Miss Arlitt, "is to make punishment unnecessary as far as possible by securing the child's coöperation—by having him work with you, not because he will be pun-

ished if he does not but because he trusts his parents or teachers completely."³ Teachers should obey one of the commandments laid down for the American school teachers by the Federal Bureau of Education⁴ which reads: "Thou shalt not try to make of thy children little images for they are a live little bunch, visiting the wriggling of their captivity upon you, their teacher, unto the last weary moment of the day; and showing interest and coöperation unto those who can give them reasonable freedom in working." There is no place for such procedure in a democratic organization since it is not favorable for the growth of such qualities as coöperation, thoughtfulness, honesty, self-control, and creative activity.

12. *Teachers should deal with each pupil kindly and sympathetically but firmly.* The large amount of freedom granted in the new schools often is criticized by those who maintain that pupils are not being disciplined or controlled. Unfortunately in many cases this appears to be true. There is a real danger that schools, like parents, are likely to spoil and "overmother" children, failing to help them appreciate authority, responsibility, the necessity of hard work, and the importance of self-control. Progressive educators differ widely in their opinions on how closely pupils should be controlled. Since weakness is responsible for ruining the life of many children, they should all be wisely guided by strong persons. Such control, however, should be recognized by the children but should not be in evidence. Some modern educators even believe children themselves enjoy order and control and demand it and the advice of adults. To quote Mearns on this point: "It is their right, indeed, to have the support which we alone can give to prevent the precious spirit of their lives from being scattered, wasted, and lost forever."⁵

³ Ada Hart Arlitt, "Modern Parent and Problems of Discipline," *Child Welfare*, December 1930, pp. 223-225.

⁴ *Journal of Education*, cxliii: 9 (March 2, 1931), p. 263.

⁵ Hughes Mearns, "I Believe in Discipline," *The Thinker*, January 1931.

13. *Teachers must avoid having prejudices and dislikes of pupils.* The antagonism between the child and teacher oftentimes is furthered by the likes and dislikes of the teacher herself who stupidly develops likes and dislikes in the same manner as the child. Although she may try not to show her prejudices, she generally finds herself favoring a certain child and hating or slighting another. Many school children unfortunately are broken through this personal relationship and gain a permanent hatred for school and study because the teacher is so distasteful to them. Ideally, especially in the lower grades, a teacher should possess all of the qualities of a mother in order to inspire the confidence of pupils. She must love and respect all the pupils under her supervision. Trouble arises when she does not. There is no place in a modern school for teachers who develop strong dislikes for pupils.

14. *Teachers must set correct examples of self-control.* It is quite unreasonable for a teacher to expect to influence others effectively when she does things which she does not approve of children doing. Therefore, the successful disciplinarians must be fair, considerate, honest, industrious, thoughtful, and sympathetic. This places a great responsibility upon teachers. However, it certainly cannot be escaped if they hope to control and get pupils to change their conduct. Teachers must be able to gain such qualities as the admiration, confidence, good will, and respect of their pupils if they are to influence them; otherwise an uncrossable barrier exists between them and their pupils. Teachers must avoid the tendency to hold a higher standard for pupils than adults would set for themselves. Teachers should check their conduct carefully to see that they are not violating this principle.

15. *Pupils should thoroughly understand the nature of privileges and responsibilities.* This principle is stressed much more in England than in America although both supposedly are democratic countries and the principle ought to be observed in any

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democracy. Children early should appreciate the nature of privileges such as to attend a free public school, play in the parks, borrow books from the library, free speech, police protection, liberty to move about the room or speak to a member of the group, and play. They should also learn how these privileges are possible only through the sacrifices and controls exercised by others and that unless individuals accept these responsibilities there will be no privileges. For instance, pupils may have the privilege of consulting other pupils when they accept the accompanying responsibilities. There are no privileges for him who steals, assaults others, drives recklessly, etc. The teacher should help pupils list all the privileges which pupils enjoy and the accompanying responsibilities. This should promote better understanding, appreciation, and citizenship in a democracy. These problems should be dealt with as an integral part of the school program, not taken up after school hours in the principal's office.

16. *Disciplinary cases in part are generally the result of trying to force pupils to fit into a maladjusted curriculum.* An interested, happy, growing pupil is seldom a disciplinary problem. Disciplinary pupils are usually maladjusted in school and thus are bored and disgusted by the work, see no challenge in it, and feel no particular urge or need for it. Consequently disciplinary problems are common in traditional schools with a narrow, formal, standardized program in which the teacher gives out the work and assumes the responsibility for seeing that it is done. In modern schools in which work is initiated and planned jointly by pupils and the professional staff and suited especially to the needs, interests, and capacities of pupils, disciplinary problems obviously are appearing less and less frequently. Hughes Mearns has fittingly expressed this principle as follows: "The work that we take to do with all our heart and all our mind, that work brings its own discipline."⁸ He

brilliantly summarizes this point of view as follows: "When the work seizes heart and mind, we need no artificial lessons in discipline. . . . Give youth something to work for and discipline will take care of itself. We must cease blaming him (youth) for not putting his heart into dull and profitless tasks." John Dewey⁹ has pointed out the need of gaining discipline through an adjusted curriculum. It is obvious that many unsocial perhaps delinquency cases in school, especially in high school, are the logical result of enrolling them in an academic college-preparatory program which is too narrow and ill fitted to meet their needs, interests, and capacities.

17. *Disciplinary measures should avoid inward protest or rebellion on the part of the one controlled.* At times, in order to remove a child from immediate danger, it may be necessary and desirable to force him to do things regardless of the way he feels about them. If this is the general rule, however, there is something seriously wrong with the person in charge who should be able to help the pupil understand so that he sees the necessity of intelligent and wise control. There is an unsatisfactory mental hygienic condition developed every time a child inwardly protests or rebels against the restrictions or requirements of an outsider. This also promotes hypocrisy and deception. A pupil who has such an attitude must be changed so that he no longer uses up energy by rebelling against what he considers unfair and undesirable practices. Teachers may be able to force outward conformity, but they are not getting anywhere until they secure the inward harmony and desire needed for good learning. Schools should develop programs to work with pupils and not against their predominant interests and wants.

18. *Corporal punishment should be used sparingly and never with a retributive atti-*

⁸ Loc. cit.

⁹ John Dewey, "How Much Freedom in the New Schools," *The New Republic*, lxxiii: 814 (July 9, 1930), pp. 204-206.

⁸ Hughes Mearns, *op. cit.*, pp. 67-79.

tude. The new education holds that corporal punishment is a stupid, undesirable method of effecting adjustments in an institution which is supposed to be a model of intelligent control. Through the threat of the hickory stick in the past many teachers have been able to force children to participate in an intellectual diet that was ill fitted and maladjusted. Corporal punishment, however, is likely not only to erect an undesirable barrier between the teacher and pupil so that ethical character development is impossible but it is likely to shock the pupil so as to cause emotional instability, at least to condition him so that he will never be quite normal in that respect. The reasons why disciplinary measures should be based upon reason, coöperation, and understanding are discussed in other principles in this paper so need not be duplicated here. They should not be of a retributive nature; they should be administered impersonally and not during a period of strong emotional feeling.

19. *All disciplinary measures should aim to promote the general welfare of the pupils, not exploit them.* Pupils are sometimes demanded or ordered to sit quietly, not to whisper, ask questions, etc., in order that the teachers will not be bothered by them and can thus do personal things of more interest than their professional duties. This, of course, is unsound because schools exist to promote maximum growth of pupils, not to provide a pleasant experience for teachers. Many teachers also have found that bossing children is a satisfactory way to compensate for a feeling of inferiority or inadequacy. There are probably only a few persons who are not guilty at times of this practice. The psychologist often can render a good service by discovering such teachers and helping them remedy their trouble. Even principals and superintendents occasionally should be checked to see whether or not personal am-

bitions outweigh professional considerations. There is so much exploitation and maltreatment in industry that the school certainly does not have to follow suit.

20. *The test of the effectiveness of any form of outside control is the degree to which it makes itself unnecessary.* Pupils should become increasingly more self-directive so that adult control becomes less and less necessary. Pupils should become increasingly more responsible for their own conduct and decisions. The teacher who must exercise the same kind of control at the end of a year as she did at the beginning has not succeeded in helping pupils gain control or a real understanding and appreciation of the principles of democratic control. For instance, should not study halls be administered by pupils? Since behavior has not changed they have not really learned anything. The ultimate aim should be to help each pupil become completely self-sustaining, responsible, and dependable even though the situation is such that he might act otherwise. Children who are encouraged to make their own decisions in early childhood learn at an early age and thus avoid more costly mistakes in adolescence. With wider experience pupils should take over more and more initiative and control and voluntarily accept the responsibility which goes hand in hand with privilege and freedom.

Teachers should look at their control as something which they wish to delegate to the pupils as fast as they are able to use it wisely. They must experiment to determine under what conditions control may best be delegated effectively. They should seek to provide the greatest good to the greatest number and realize that no form of control need work one hundred per cent to be successful.

* "T.

Winifred Gibson

(With Apologies to Edwin Arlington Robinson)

*Winifred Gibson, T.-in-T.,**
Grew pale as she surveyed her classes.
She did not view humanity
Through rosy glasses.

Winifred loved the days of old
When schools were strict and pupils frightened—
When they would do as they were told
And be enlightened.

Winifred sighed for what was not
As vacantly she marked her papers.
The students thought her "not so hot"—
And cut up capers.

Winifred mourned the school house red,
Its windows gay with bright geraniums.
She mourned the time when rules were fed
To docile craniums.

Winifred loved the tranquil calm
That once belonged to education—
When weeks went by without alarm
Or agitation.

Winifred scorned the gold she sought
But quite at sea was she without it.
Winifred pondered, mused, and thought—
And thought about it.

Winifred Gibson, born too late,
Pursed her lips and kept on thinking.
Winifred coughed and called it fate—
And kept on shrinking.

IRENE S. DOUGLAS

* "T.-in-T." means Teacher-in-Training.

Homeroom Management

L. W. Kindred

The homerooms, please God, have no syllabus to follow, no course of study. But, conceivably, they would be more effective if they had a system to follow and a course of action, at least for certain recurrent problems. The author, a member of the faculty of University High School, Ann Arbor, Michigan, adds another significant contribution to the list of those this magazine has published on demonstrated refinements of our homeroom techniques.

IT WOULD be conceded probably by most authorities in the field of administration and supervision that the homeroom, in the schools where it exists, is the real center of school life. In such schools it occupies a position in some respects comparable to a clearinghouse for banking institutions. There are, it is true, several fundamental differences between the two, although in their administrative functions many similarities appear. Originally, the homeroom was known as the record room in which all of the school's administrative routine was carried on: absences and tardinesses were recorded; excuses checked; report cards distributed; cases of discipline handled; and academic records filed. These duties continued, but the scientific movement in education and the broader understanding of child life brought additional responsibilities, and the record room became the homeroom.

It is because of these additional responsibilities that the homeroom renders such an important service. Any problem affecting the school life of a boy or girl, whether social, economic, or educational, must clear through the homeroom adviser. This person, as the responsible agent acting in the interest of the child, is constantly challenged by his problems. This means that the teacher who is confronted with the task of guiding the activities of a homeroom should possess considerable understanding of the specific nature of his duties. At the outset he should be concerned with the goals toward which he expects to work.

It is not easy clearly and definitely to define these goals. Repeated efforts to do so, however, will be rewarded. Once they are clear in the mind of the teacher a sound set of principles can serve to guide any steps which may be taken to achieve them.

One such principle is that all activities carried on by members of the group should result from decisions of their own making. By permitting pupils to exercise their own initiative and resourcefulness, a sincere interest in their activities can be motivated. This experience is productive of more efficient learning. The pupils identify themselves with the activities and in their minds they are given something of a personal character. Moreover, if the adviser allows them to make their own decisions, the pupils will feel that he has some respect for their maturity and judgment.

Whatever the form of the homeroom organization, if it is a product of teacher-directed pupil planning, it can be used to develop an integrated social unit. This is accomplished by delegating to the pupils the responsibility for successfully managing their own affairs. In performing this responsibility, they elect their officers, establish rules for procedure, set up standards, plan activities, build programs, and evaluate results. The common factor of group interest runs throughout all that is done. It has the effect of submerging itself in the larger unit of the group and sublimating it to a higher level of accomplishment. This achievement is generally accompanied by an enthusiasm

and understanding that characterizes the organization as one endowed with an intellectualized purpose for socially useful action.

Experience in supervising and directing pupil management soon discloses, however, the presence of certain obstacles. Some pupils come from homes where training has ignored the practice of social thought. Each idea and act expressed or undertaken by the group is measured in terms of narrow selfish standards. Children possessed of this background have difficulty in understanding the concept of impersonal collective work and play. Here the teacher meets a major problem requiring tactful and patient effort over a long period of time. Another obstacle is the selection of competent leaders. Since the procedure of selection is a democratic one, and since partiality rather than ability frequently decides choice, it is essential that the adviser discuss each election before it occurs. Pupils should be encouraged to analyze candidates in terms of their fitness for the positions open. When the positions have been filled, the adviser will find it beneficial to spend a considerable period of time educating the new officials to the duties of their office.

There is, however, a danger that in this delegation of administrative responsibility license may be mistaken for liberty, though this need not be the case if adequate instruction is given these people concerning the nature and scope of their authority. It also happens occasionally that competent but indifferent persons are chosen as leaders. Their inefficiency may have a detrimental influence on the group to the extent of destroying enthusiasm, promoting skepticism, and substituting indolence for pride of accomplishment. The alert adviser quickly recognizes the slightest letdown, and acts promptly to curb it. Permitting it to continue unchallenged may result in the condition described above, and then the restoration of efficiency can be made only at the sacrifice of much time and labor. When the problem does

exist in its initial stages, there are three avenues of approach open for meeting it. The first is a direct conference with the person or persons involved; deficiencies are pointed out and remedial measures suggested. A second avenue is through the periodic meetings of adviser and student officers who discuss proposed policies and plan future programs. Such a method is impersonal and more objective. The third means lies in the group practice of appraising homeroom activities. This procedure is a regular part of the weekly business. The appraisal is a report by a student appointed to make the evaluation upon the basis of adopted standards. Such standards should cover the case in point. If the appraiser has failed to recognize the letdown in official performance of duties, the teacher as a member of the group can safely raise the question without invalidating his position as adviser or arousing personal antipathy. The act of judgment becomes impersonal by reference to the accepted standards.

As often as occasion permits, instruction directed toward the acquisition of essential attitudes, techniques, and habits should be carried on through the leaders of the group. An example of this is found in the practice of group expression on debatable issues. Whenever a decision is reached, no matter how trivial it may appear to be, a record should be made of it by the secretary and kept on file. At some subsequent meeting new business of a contradictory character may arise, and a decision may be reached that is quite the opposite of one previously recorded. Without delay, the adviser in conference with the officers of the room should point out the inconsistency. He should advise the committee to reveal the error to the group with a request for corrective action. There is frequently an element of real sacrifice involved in this type of situation. It has a sound influence upon the hasty expression of individual and group judgment. Here the learning process comes about through an appreciation of consequences.

Parallel to this particular habit is another that is equally valuable but more difficult to achieve; it is the habit of viewing all action in objective terms as measured by the policies or decisions previously reached. Suppose, for the moment, that the homeroom agreed to set aside ten minutes of one day each week for the reading of official school notices either by the president of the room or by the adviser, and during the reading of those notices two or three members became engaged in a disturbing conversation. Who should admonish these people? The answer is that any person in the room is privileged to invoke reproof by reference to the homeroom policy covering the situation. At some time in the past the room went on record as opposed to any form of disturbance during meetings. The discussion leading to this statement had indicated that respect for personality and efficiency in procedure could best be served under this condition. It was further agreed that any violator of the rule would have to suffer the loss of specified privileges. The present disregard for the rule makes enforcement imperative.

If, on the other hand, there is no policy on record that is applicable, then the disturbance is an occasion for objective discussion on the need and nature of such a policy. A distinct advantage is obvious in the objectivity that exists to the elimination of possible conflict between the adviser and a pupil, or between one pupil charged with administrative responsibility and one who is not. Failure to carry out a task that has been delegated to an individual following the group recommendation that such a task be done, as the keeping of accurate records by the secretary, or the watering of plants each morning by some member of the room, likewise ceases to be a matter for discussion between the teacher and the pupil or between the officers of the group and the delinquent member. In the same way there is an objective measurement of that person's discharge of duty as established by the recom-

mendation that called for the activity in the first place, and, when approached from this point of view, it is purely an impersonal matter.

The principles which have been enumerated thus far are further exemplified in the program of activities that are carried on in the homeroom. Each activity of the list to be suggested is simply a means for establishing socially desirable habits, attitudes, and skills that produce greater efficiency in the instructional program. These activities are based upon the felt expression of needs and recognized interests. They are the social cement for bringing about a necessary unity in terms of the psychological and social values essential to growth. These activities may be concerned with the procedure to be followed in conducting a business meeting, the form and content of special committee reports, the techniques of coöperative action and thought, the planning and executing of special hobby programs, the care and upkeep of the homeroom, the type and management of special clubs, the records and progress in tardiness and absence, the appraisal of all homeroom activity according to self-constructed rating scales, the establishment of a special library and the selection of desirable literature, the development of assembly programs, and the like.

The teacher is challenged by the necessity of engaging each pupil in one or more activities that are in keeping with the recognized interests of the child. Unless care and foresight are exercised in this matter, a small minority of the more capable members will monopolize the entire program, so defeating in a large measure the purposes behind this instructional unit.

It is not difficult to secure information about the interests that each pupil is fostering. The adviser can discover these through conversation with the pupil, with his parents, or with his immediate associates. Frequently they are disclosed on the admission blanks filled out at the time of entrance to the school, or they may come through a

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written request for certain activities that the child would like to see carried on in the homeroom. It is interesting to use a questionnaire of this sort at the beginning of the year and another at the close of the academic period in order to note possible changes that have occurred either as a result of what has been done in the homeroom or as a result of maturation plus new experiences.

The adviser will be greatly aided in his work with the homeroom if he systematically records information about a child as it comes to his attention. A loose-leaf notebook is advisable in which to make personnel records. It is problematical as to the exact nature of the information that should be on file, but a safe rule and a practical one to follow in the keeping of these individual records is to make a written notation of every matter that concerns the subject in any way, no matter how small or how large it may be. If this is done over a long period of time—and that means the span of the child's existence in school—the adviser is enabled by the data to get several patterns of the child's thought and conduct that assist in understanding his personality.

School life must, in all cases, be amplified with facts pertaining to the social, economic, and educational background from which the child comes. The forces that are at play outside of the school wield as much, and probably more, influence than do those in the institution itself. A knowledge of these forces, as poverty, for example, or parental incompatibility, or religious fanaticism, or any other that could be mentioned, are the loci of problems in maladjustment, delinquency, and retardation. They suggest the basis for the approach to the problems that the adviser sees in connection with the child who is under his guidance.

A large portion of the homeroom teacher's time is given over to personal conferences with students. These conferences may be initiated by the teacher and are usually done so at the request of classroom teachers. They are the outgrowth of special reports contain-

ing information about the pupil. The adviser systematically records the information contained in the report, reviews the cumulative data in the personnel file, and arranges a conference with the pupil.

Some teachers still regard the conference as an occasion for giving criticism and advice. Experience with this type of conference soon reveals its ineffectiveness. The pupil as the mute recipient of a verbal barrage usually resents the attitude of the teacher. He finds it impossible to assimilate all that is said regarding the past, the present, and the future. Moreover, he is justified in feeling that the teacher has broken the sanctions of the homeroom. In short, the conference is a pedagogical and social failure.

The more desirable type of conference is based upon the democratic concept of respect for personality. Both teacher and pupil are brought together as coöperating agents seeking the solution of a problem. The teacher assumes leadership and promotes discussion. He considers all factors revealed in the child's cumulative record. He invites comment and encourages free expression as he tests for understanding until he feels certain that the child recognizes and wills to solve the problem. He gives advice but he is careful lest he destroy the child's problem by reaching the solution for him. If the solution is unsound, he points out its weakness and suggests a new method of attack. When both teacher and pupil are agreed that a satisfactory plan of action has been evolved, it is put into practice. The advantages of this type of conference are: a mutual respect for personal rights; the recognition of special considerations as evidenced by the data; the focalization of education in the child; and the feeling of coöperative endeavor shared by each party to the conference.

The parent is very often a necessary third party to the conference. This procedure is not always accepted in practice. Some teachers regard parents as instigators of com-

munity prejudice, ignorant trouble makers, unfair supporters of the child, and stubborn blindmen before the facts. These and other accusations are true. They are applicable, however, to a small minority only, and, in many cases, intelligent public relations would reduce the quota.

Because all problems affecting the school life of the child clear through the adviser, the parental-relations problem becomes a significant aspect of homeroom management. Every expressed thought and action by the teacher creates impressions upon children that are carried into the home. Here they are appraised and evaluated in terms of their worth to the child. The parental reactions which occur may determine the child's attitude in school, and the teacher contends with factors beyond his control. Fortunately, because of his position, the homeroom teacher can solicit parental aid in solving school problems. As occasion permits, he can either visit the home or invite the parent to the school. In this way he learns to know the character of his parents and they come to know what he represents. Understanding and respect for personal differences minimize the chance for conflict. Also in dealing with the child, the adviser can make a more satisfactory allowance for conditions extraneous to the school.

There are teachers who question the

validity of frequent parental conferences. It is their belief that parents prefer teachers to handle all problems unless they are quite serious. Recent psychological studies show that a wide difference in opinion exists among teachers and psychologists with respect to what constitutes a serious behavior problem in the school.¹ Here the position is taken that parents should be invited into consultation when patterns of behavior are evident that may become serious. The teacher who initiates the conference must be well fortified with the facts upon which his assumption is based. These must be interpreted upon a level commensurate with the intellectual and cultural status of the parent.

There are other phases of the public-relations problem that are generally neglected. They are the numerous small details of school life full of meaning to the home. Parents appreciate information about successful progress, special rewards, and meritorious service which their children are responsible for; they are likewise appreciative of special considerations, inquiries concerning absence, requests for advice, acknowledgement of contributions, and many other matters which taken together constitute a basic factor in building school support.

¹ E. K. Wickman, *Children's Behavior and Teachers' Attitudes* (New York: The Commonwealth Fund, 1928), 247 pages.

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The Socialization of Oral English

Frances Broehl

A good many of us have felt vaguely for a long time that there is something wrong with "oral English composition." Even when it was good, there was something academic about it, something borrowed from what they used to call "forensics." The author, supervisor of English in Flint, Michigan, sensed something like this, but not vaguely. She has written for this magazine a discussion of tested devices by which oral English is brought out of the debating society atmosphere into functional situations. Here she offers English not as a subject to study but a language to speak.

INCREASINGLY we are coming to sense that our English program in the public schools should take cognizance of the need for true social activities in the classroom. Man is a social being; he lives with people. To a great extent, his personality is molded by his contacts with people, and his success or failure in realizing to the fullest measure the possibilities inherent in real living depends upon the effect his actions and personality have upon those with whom he comes in social contact. In theory, educators admit this premise; in practice our procedures have far too greatly been based upon the supposition that our students will live in isolation—self-centered and independent.

Take for specific consideration the field of so-called oral English. Probably all too frequently, the term implies the idea of a student standing in the front of the room before his classmates delivering a formal report in a formal fashion. No one would deny the value of such an activity. It certainly does have a place in our planning. But for one student who in his school or adult life will be called upon to make a speech or give a report, there must be dozens whose needs for oral activity will partake of a more practical and functional nature, most of them involving social and business intercourse with others. What are we doing in our English courses to take care of the latter group?

Our oral English lessons have other func-

tions equally important with those of a practical nature. They should give the students opportunities in the development of personality, in the laying of a foundation of social adequacy. They should provide situations in which students are presented with the necessity for quick thinking, for adapting and modifying their reactions to meet the changing facets of some one else's ideas and actions.

Although recent textbooks and magazine articles have been endeavoring to help solve these problems, too often a departure from established practice and routine is met with timidity, hesitancy, and the feeling that such steps can only be undertaken under ideal conditions—that such theories cannot be worked out by the average teacher in the average school.

So practice fails to infringe upon the Utopian territory of theory, and nothing transpires to change the even tenor of our ways. What situations in our habitual living call for the most frequent oral discourse? We sit at ease in our homes, conversing with our friends. On the way to a movie, riding home from church, seated at a dinner table, we partake in the interchange of ideas with acquaintances, friends, and sometimes strangers. At a meeting of our lodge, our club, our luncheon group, we are called upon to express our opinions about things. It is in these experiences that we meet the challenges of social intercourse. And how

does the average man or woman measure up? All of us have sat in meetings of one organization or another, month after month, in which certain members contributed no participation whatever. Is it because these persons have no ideas? Hardly, since the purpose of these meetings is likely as not to be merely of a semisocial nature.

The fault probably lies in the fact that the individual's adaptability to group situations has stiffened. He has not acquired the facility of meeting comment with comment, of advancing his own ideas, of being a good listener, of keeping the ball rolling. Perhaps he fails to realize that he has any ideas to offer. Disuse can atrophy this ability, I suppose, as well as any other. Still water runs deep, so says the adage, but such a personality hardly subscribes to the gaiety of nations.

In addition to the expression of opinions, comments, and other conversational give and take, we have the amenities of social behavior to consider. How often has one been bored by the monopolizer—the individual who is so enthralled by his own charm and brilliance that he cannot be induced to yield the floor to any one else—or the well-meaning body who has never learned to condense, taking an hour to arrive at his point. What is to be done about persons who interrupt rudely or absent-mindedly, who fail to observe the courtesies supposedly inherent in well-bred folk. Not in the recitation, not in the formal individual report, will these various personalities be given practice in overcoming their peculiar difficulties. Can social situations be approximated in an oral English class in a degree necessary to obtain these objectives?

Not to the height of perfection desired, we realize. Yet there are certain experiences which may be arranged which will provide such opportunities, if these experiences are repeated often enough. The following are a few types of social patterns which may be set up in any average English class—or in any other subject matter, as far as that goes. And along with our outcomes in oral ac-

tivity, we may have many other concomitants of learning as well.

I. Group Discussions

These group discussions may partake of the form of a panel discussion, with its more formal set-up, or it may be a round table, resembling a conversational circle in the home. In the latter case the chairman becomes the host. About five or six students gather around a table in the front of the room, or in a semicircle. They have previously been given a topic for discussion, and perhaps have had a few minutes meeting during the class hour the day before to plan their conversation. (After students become accustomed to the idea of group discussions, these preliminary meetings may often be dispensed with.) The chairman submits an opening statement, and another member adds to it, disagrees, or asks a question. Other students join in as the topic develops in an easy, informal manner. The chairman's duty is to keep the ball rolling, perhaps introduce a new idea, bring into the participation members who hitherto have failed to live up to their responsibilities as members of the circle. He brings the fifteen minutes gracefully to a close, or invites comment, contributions, or questions from the audience.

Some of the topics or subjects used in round-table discussions, actually observed by the writer, are suggested. The classes ranged from the seventh grade through the eleventh, the ability of the groups average or slightly below. This list shows the wide variety of purposes to which the activity may be directed.

1. A group of students wished to report on the reading of biographies in connection with a unit in American literature. They discussed the books they had read in a round table before the class.

2. A class had been doing extensive reading in correlation with a unit on the novel, of which *Silas Marner* was the central core. Students were divided into groups to discuss the filming of the story; one group planned the costumes, another the settings, another the scenes, etc. The students were seated around a table in front of the room. This tested their background knowledge and reading as well as giving practice in conversation.

3. A round table in the seventh grade, at the end of a reading unit on "Inventions," talked about the question, "Were our grandparents happier in their day than we are?" The children were seated in a semicircle before the class.

4. A round table of eighth-grade pupils discussed hobbies they enjoyed.

5. Classes in various grades reported on home reading by holding round tables on "Books I Enjoyed."

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II. Group Reports

A less social set-up is that of group reports. It has the advantage of enabling forty students to report on some topic during the one hour. Students will also talk to a small group of five, when they will refuse to talk before a class. About six groups may arrange themselves in various corners of the room, and, under the direction of the chairmen, the students give their reports to the members of their own group. This project is almost always productive of good results.

1. One tenth-grade composition class divided into six groups, each taking a general topic, such as "Making a Newspaper." The students selected sub-topics on which to prepare. On the oral day, the students in turn gave their reports to their groups, the chairmen called for constructive comments, and questions were asked of the speakers. The teacher and visitor listened in on the various groups, which were all busily occupied at the same time. At the end of the hour the chairmen reported to the class the work of their particular groups.

2. A literature class, reading *As You Like It*, reported on background reading in a similar manner. Shakespeare's life, the England of his day, etc., were reported on in five groups, all going on at the same time.

3. One class held their group report at the front of the room. Six students were seated around a table. After each individual talk on "The Making of a Motion Picture," the class asked questions of the members on the group panel. Thus formal reports were combined with social discussion.

III. Interviews

An interesting method of reporting on correlated reading or biographies is by the imaginary interview between a famous person and a reporter. The student being interviewed must know all about the person he represents and he must think quickly in order to adjust his answers to the questions. The writer has heard Mrs. Martin Johnson being interviewed on her explorations, and Anne Bradstreet telling her experiences in early America. The possibilities are endless, as the reader may perceive. Another idea, the "Inquiring Reporter," is becoming a popular device in our classes.

IV. The Use of the Telephone

The telephone is an almost indispensable part of the equipment of our daily living. Yet too often little is done in the matter of training the pupil in the proper business and social amenities to be observed in its use. Students enjoy this activity, especially when real telephones are obtained for use in the classroom. Young children should be taught how to dial, how to put through a long-distance call. They should have practice in answer-

ing correctly, in giving and accepting invitations over the telephone, and should have the opportunities to carry on telephone conversations, observing courtesy, brevity, and good language and voice usage. Some of the activities involving business usage over the telephone observed in various classes are listed. (They correlate very well with letter-writing units.) Students participate in pairs, with two telephones placed in the classroom.

1. Ordering a taxi—receiving the order
2. Making appointments with the doctor, dentist, hairdresser—receiving the call
3. Complaints to the telephone company, the gas company, the milk man—receiving the complaints
4. Ordering groceries—taking the order, and so on

V. Introductions

Dramatizations of various forms of introductions are valuable. It is one thing to read about the correct response to make, but it is another to give them in actual situations. Students enjoy planning group dramatizations in which introductions take a part. Two girls walk down the street and meet a third, who is known to one of the first pair. Introductions of one friend to another take place. They all stop at the home of a friend. The friend's mother comes in. Introductions to an older person ensue, and so on. Boys may introduce friends to a Scout leader, to a football coach, to their fathers.

SOCIALIZING THE INDIVIDUAL REPORT

Since there is a distinct place for the individual report, there should always be plans for them in an oral English program. But even the formal report may be socialized. One easy and interesting device has proved successful with all grades. After his talk the student remains standing in front of the room, or by his desk. The members of the class then have the privilege of asking him questions, which he answers, or making constructive comments, contributing additional information, etc. The student, too, corrects his own errors, which are pointed out to him. All this is done without the assistance of the teacher, who for the most part remains in the background.

Another device for passing around the coveted chairmanship is that of appointing five or six chairmen for the hour. Each one is responsible for a half-dozen student speakers. They check up on the preparation

of the members of their group, and often have more influence in producing results in the way of pupil participation than teachers possess. They devise little introductions to use in announcing the talks in their groups, and give comments after them, often calling on members of the class for opinions and suggestions. The teacher before the class hour gives the chairmen the order of their appearance. The writer has observed many times such procedures as the following. After a few minutes' class discussion in which self-appraisal guides are reviewed, the teacher turns the class over to the first chairman, who announces successively the members of his group. When he states that his group has finished, the next chairman quietly arises and takes charge of his members, and so on. Comparing this type of lesson with the regulation method, one notices immediately the difference in class interest. Each group wants to measure up to the achievements of the other.

Other functional types of oral assignments which may be dramatized into more lifelike situations are announcements, explanations, and directions. Nothing is said here about the values of reading in unison, as that activity has been discussed in numerous periodicals. However, it might be mentioned that the reading of suitable poetry and prose in unison or in groups is proving an interesting experiment in our slow groups. Many productive results are glimpsed.

The ensuing varied outcomes are among those achieved by such a program in socialized oral English.

1. The student learns to work with his classmates in groups. He experiences group planning.

2. The student senses the meaning of group responsibility, of the submerging of his own desires for the good of others, even if it means a sacrifice.

3. Boys and girls learn to think and speak extemporaneously. In the give and take of discussion and conversational intercourse, they learn to adjust their ideas and the expression of them to the constantly changing contributions of another's personality. They learn to talk *with* people, as well as *at* them.

4. Social ease, confidence, self-control, and poise are more easily achieved.

5. Social courtesies are learned in actual practice. The student learns to be thoughtful, polite, tactful, and considerate. He learns to put others' welfare before his own.

6. The interest of the class as an audience is tremendously increased. This is one of the most noticeable immediate outcomes.

7. Many timid pupils, who refuse to take any part in the old-type procedure, will participate.

8. Time is saved since twice as many students can participate during the hour as in the traditional plan.

9. Students like oral English days instead of dreading them.

10. An easy and profitable method of taking care of the reporting on correlated and extensive reading is provided.

11. Pupils learn to discuss books, motion-picture shows, questions of current interest, etc., in an intelligent and interesting fashion. They learn to think, not merely to parrot information second hand.

12. Language and voice habits improve more readily than by using the formal report type exclusively.

For the encouragement of the hesitant instructor, let it be repeated that such oral English experiences may be approximated in practically any situation. A number of comparatively inexperienced teachers used them successfully, and some of our most profitable lessons have taken place in quite slow groups. All that is necessary is an open mind and a willingness to experiment. The students will respond more than half way.

Mathematics and Character Education

E. B. Cowley

In this day of radio ballyhoo we have begun to develop thick hides, or a deaf ear, or whatever it takes to resist the persuasion of high-power, long-range, leather-lunged persuaders. We mistrust that eating Father's Bread will make our hair curly; we doubt the efficacy of wart removers, corn removers, stain removers; we are cynical about the merits of almost every proposition enthusiastically advanced. But every school teacher and his brother will surely pay attention when Dr. Cowley demonstrates, with quadratic logic and hardly a single P.E., the relationship between mathematics and character.

THE NEED of character training as an integral part of our educational work is probably apparent to every one. Many educators have come to the conclusion that practically every activity in the curriculum presents opportunities for character education. Moreover, the extensive and rapidly growing literature treats many aspects of the subject. Hence it is difficult to understand why writers ignore mathematics as a contributing factor in the development of character. Let us ask whether this ancient, but evergrowing, subject of mathematics can offer to the restless, forward-looking, inquiring, speed-loving boys and girls anything that will help them to solve their problems of everyday living and thus to develop those attitudes that are such an essential part of character education.

Many of the difficulties which these young folks are meeting today are due, in a large measure, to their failure to grasp the relation of cause and effect. Mathematics, the science of necessary conclusions, can be made a powerful instrument in leading high-school students to see that certain causes produce certain results. The branch of mathematics known as geometry is especially well adapted for use in this way. But no amount of time and effort spent upon the study of this subject will be of avail unless the student grasps the significance of the omnipresent "if, then."

The teacher must direct the student's at-

tention again and again to the idea that every theorem states that if certain things are given (or assumed or guaranteed), then certain results follow. The pupil must not only acquire the habit of proving statements set before him, but must also gain skill in finding what results can be expected when certain geometric conditions are given, and what set (or sets) of causes would be sufficient to produce certain results which are known.

The student must also be led to see that the relation of cause and effect is not confined to geometry textbooks, but abounds in all the work and play of his daily life. If we wish to have the "if, then" relation functioning in life, a conscious effort must be made to place geometry in the realm of life and to bring life into the realm of geometry. Simple and obvious cases of cause and effect that are not purely geometric must be discussed in the classroom. Take, for example, "If a child puts his hand on a hot stove, he is burned," or "If a glass dish falls from a table to a concrete floor, it is broken." Cases of cause and effect are easily found in many of the school activities. For example, in a senior-high-school "homeroom" where the pupils were in the first semester of the eleventh school year, the monthly attendance report was marred by too much tardiness. The teacher discussed the matter with the class at a weekly homeroom period. On motion the matter was referred to the

attendance committee. They borrowed the teacher's rollbook and studied it for themselves. The next week they reported to the homeroom that three fourths of the tardy marks were due to one boy. The chairman said, "I shall not mention his name, but the committee hopes that he will find the cause and remove it. He never studied geometry, but every one on the committee did and of course we know the 'if, then' relation." Two weeks later the boy was again tardy. The committee had a conference with the culprit and decided that the cause was oversleeping. One of the boys volunteered to telephone each school morning at seven o'clock to the culprit's mother and ask her to awaken him. He was tardy only once again during that semester.

The carry over of the "if, then" relation is not a temporary affair. Take, for example, the case of Jacob Greenfield. When he was in the first semester of the tenth school year, a film was being shown as the program for the homeroom period. When the shades had been drawn down and the room was darkened, Jacob suddenly talked out loud, banged a desk lid, and shot a gum band against another boy's cheek. As soon as the teacher was certain that he was the offender, she remained near him and thus preserved order. After school she held a conference with the student officers of the homeroom. Next day the student president took a few minutes of the time allotted to opening exercises and announced that unless apologies were made to the man teacher who had charge of the films and to the student who had run that film the homeroom could never ask to have another film. The following morning Jacob came to school very early and stood awkwardly near the teacher's desk, making an occasional remark about the weather. Finally he said, "Geometry follows a fellow around all the time. You can't get away from the 'if, then.' I'd write to that teacher and that boy if I knew how." At the next homeroom period he arose and politely asked the president for per-

mission to read two letters (which had been composed according to some suggestions from the teacher). They were solemnly accepted by vote of the room and sent by the secretary.

Two years later in another homeroom when a classmate had been inexcusably rude to the teacher (a man), Jacob asked permission to take that student out into the corridor. When they returned, the bad boy walked up to his teacher and offered an apology, adding "Give Jake the credit. He says you learn in geometry about the 'if, then'; and it works."

Some persons insist that the study of geometry is of no assistance in making clear the relation of cause and effect, because there are plenty of cases of cause and effect outside the geometry classroom. To this argument we may reply that many life situations are so involved that the untrained person finds it difficult, or even impossible, to analyze them. But in geometry the situations are simpler and are more clearly defined. Hence a study of this subject enables the pupil to learn to recognize cause and effect, first in the simplest cases. Later he gradually acquires power to deal with more complicated cases. After he has mastered his geometry, he can use its technique to help him in finding causes, or results, in the more involved situations he finds in his own life.

The teacher of geometry should also direct the pupil's attention to manifestations of cause and effect in the local community, the State, and the nation. For example, let the pupil seek the causes of the exorbitant and steadily mounting taxes. Is one of the causes to be found in unwarrantedly large "relief" funds—especially the generous "doles" given to those who refuse to accept a part-time job, or a modest wage for steady work? These persons belong to the army of those who want to get something for nothing. With them we would place the women who waste time at "bargain counters"; and the persons who foreclose mortgages on homes where the family is temporarily dis-

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tressed; and the tenants who mutilate or destroy the up-to-date appliances which they have demanded from the landlord.

Let us now turn to another of the difficulties of modern life where mathematics can be of substantial assistance. Mathematics requires strict attention to all the conditions of the problem in hand in order to ascertain the resources and objectives and then obtain the solution. A pupil who is inattentive, careless, and indifferent always has trouble with exercises in geometry. There is no cut and dried method of overcoming inattention, carelessness, or indifference. It requires time, patience, alertness, skill, and ingenuity on the part of the teacher. It may be worth while to mention one device that I have found valuable, although I have not known of its use by other teachers. The students are given a definite time, say three minutes, to read an exercise which is in the textbook, but is new to them. Promptly at the end of the time, the books are closed and any notes they have taken are put out of sight. When the class is asked what the exercise is about some one with a facile verbal memory usually volunteers and recites the exercise in the words of the textbook. When asked to step up to the blackboard and draw a figure, the pupil may try to conceal his ignorance by saying that a figure is not needed because no figure is shown in the textbook. Unless students have been taught how to read an exercise, the poverty of the results that they get in three minutes' reading is almost unbelievable. However, a persistent campaign against careless reading will usually bring improvement.

As the results of inattention, carelessness, and indifference are so quickly apparent in geometry, the study of this subject forces upon the students' attention the necessity of studying any situation in which he finds himself and using the means at hand in solving the life problem that confronts him. The concomitant ideals of self-control and self-direction may be introduced simply and easily. Let us consider an example. In a

homeroom where the pupils were in the second semester of the tenth school year, Glenn Forsyth, a fine looking, able, and pleasant boy, was nominated for each office in turn, beginning with the presidency. Fifty of his fifty-four classmates gleefully voted against him. Glenn looked bewildered, but tried to smile. He was on the highest honor roll and was one of the strongest members of the football team. After school had been dismissed he lingered and asked the homeroom teacher, "Can you help me find out why I am so unpopular? I try so hard to do good work in my classes and on the football team. I seem to succeed. Maybe it is like that geometric exercise that I could not do the other day because I overlooked some of the conditions." In as kind and tactful a manner as possible the teacher directed his attention to three factors. One was his boastfulness of being on the highest honor roll and the football team. Then she reminded him that he had been dishonest to her once the previous semester. He had left the building without permission and had lied about it when caught by a student door guard. She also mentioned an incident of unsportsmanlike conduct. He had coaxed one of his men teachers to change a "B" to an "A," to enable him to get on the highest honor roll. After a few moments' struggle with himself to keep his composure, he said quietly, "Geometry has taught me another lesson."

A third weakness that leads to individual and national disaster is gullibility. So many persons believe any statement because a clever radio announcer repeats it in well-modulated tones seven days per week, or because it appears as part of an attractive advertisement in each issue of a popular magazine. Such persons are completely at the mercy of a supersalesman. The highly critical subject of mathematics can come to the rescue. It permits no jumping at conclusions; it tolerates no guessing; and it challenges snap judgments. It inculcates an attitude of scrutinizing all things and rejecting those that are untenable. But the pupil

will not acquire this critical attitude if mere verbatim memorization is allowed to usurp the place of thinking. Watch for this critical attitude in the classroom. When the theorem that the diagonals of a parallelogram bisect each was being studied, a pupil drew on the board a figure that was a rectangle. After the theorem had been proved, the teacher asked casually whether the diagonals of a parallelogram are equal. A boy walked up to the board and measured those two diagonals and said, "Yes, the diagonals of a parallelogram must be equal, because each of those is eighteen inches." The teacher took time to tell a story about a woman who was entertained at luncheon one day at a college, where hot biscuits and jam were served. Later in a magazine article on food served at colleges, the statement was made that hot biscuits and jam were served daily at that college. Jam and geometry! What a delightfully unexpected combination! But the jam did its work, for presently another boy walked up to the board and drew a parallelogram with a thirty degree angle and found its diagonals were unequal.

Those educators who extol the soft pedagogy are bitter opponents of mathematics. Although a real, live boy (girls included) of high-school age may be lazy, he has no use for the "soft stuff" which these educationalists would offer in place of mathematics. When a boy does work, he wants to feel the glow that goes with hard work.

In contrast to this severe side of mathematics there is a lighter, a recreational, aspect that is of importance in these days when we are facing the dangers of increasing the leisure time of those who do not know how to use it worthily. In classrooms some attention should be given to the mathematics that enter into many popular games and also to the possibilities of recreational puzzles derived from mathematics. There are books that are rich mines of such material.

Although many high-school pupils have heard of *Alice in Wonderland*, few of them know that Lewis Carroll was Charles Dodgson, a mathematician of Oxford University, England, who could write mathematical books and also delightful nonsense such as *Alice*. The pupil who has grasped the possibilities of leisure will not be satisfied to spend much time or money on those commercialized recreations that convey cheap and tawdry and even pernicious ideas.

Mathematics is subtle. In fact it is so subtle that many persons who think they know the subject fail to grasp its fine points. The teaching of mathematics can have no value as an aid in character education if a drill-master sitting in the teacher's chair does nothing more than compel students to solve problems and to memorize definitions, axioms, and proofs verbatim so that at a given signal (such as a test or an examination) they can reproduce this material in a form which is letter-perfect. Students who have been subjected to this régime fail to realize that mathematics is a science of necessary conclusions, that it requires strict attention to all the conditions of the problem in hand, that it permits no guessing, that it wrestles with difficulties, and that it can be a source of pleasure and profit in leisure time.

The generalizations of mathematics, its calmness and serenity, have been achieved by the combination of patient toil and far-flung vision. It had its origin in the heat and struggle of common and humble problems of everyday life. Today, as in the past, it is helped by difficult problems which confront man in various fields.

Mathematics becomes worth while to the pupil of today when presented in a fresh and vital manner, tied up with modern living conditions. When the student approaches mathematics in this way, he gains attitudes that are an essential part of character education.

Mapping Your Guidance Work

Douglas S. Ward

Who has not thrilled at the sight of one of those great maps by which switch masters, traffic managers, and other such personages indicate the progress of their trains or ships or planes! There is something of the same dramatic interest in the device described for us here by the vice-principal of the Warren Harding Junior High School at Des Moines, Iowa.

SCARCELY a week passes in the routine of the average guidance officer that there does not arise the urgent need for locating a pupil whose record card does not carry a telephone number. The band director must have, for some unforeseen purpose, an instrument taken home by a student, or the principal desires the services of a particularly dependable youngster for a task that would contribute both to the child's education and to the work of the school. Or, perhaps, the attendance officer wishes to check the cause of a relatively short absence on the part of a pupil whose record does not justify sending a visiting teacher; especially since the ranks of visiting teachers have been decidedly thinned during recent years.

These, and a half dozen other specific demands upon the vice-principal in one junior high school of a thousand pupils, led to the construction of a pupil map of the district served by that school, and the results seem encouraging enough to warrant a short explanation of its construction and uses. The vice-principal in question is responsible for discipline, general guidance, and attendance problems of the boys of the school, there being a girls' adviser for the other half of the student population. In addition, this individual was new to the school, and faced not only the demands of the position but the necessity for becoming acquainted with the students, and for understanding the geographical and environmental factors represented in the school district. Therefore, the map was constructed for the double purpose of orienting the new administrator and pro-

viding a usable device for the routine of his office.

The mechanical-drawing instructor supervised the production of an accurate map of the district which was then blueprinted on a machine which is part of the school equipment; however, this latter process is by no means necessary. Serial-numbered tacks of different colors for each class were needed for indicating the location of each student's home on the map. It was found that such tacks sell for twenty dollars per thousand, which proved to be prohibitive. Common pins pierced through numbered circles of heavy-colored paper were found to serve the purpose adequately, and could be made from materials readily available and of very small value. The circles of paper were prepared by using a large paper punch and utilizing the paper displaced from the holes as heads for the markers. The work of punching, numbering, and placing the paper circles on pins, arranging them in order, and piercing them into lids of small cardboard boxes was done in the art classes. The map was then mounted on beaver board to provide a surface in which the pins would be firmly in place.

The guidance cards used in the system in question contain a general ability, personality, and environmental rating which is made for each child just prior to his entering junior high. Guidance cards for boys (only boys being placed on this particular map) were arranged alphabetically according to classes, 7B, 7A, etc. The cards for each class were then numbered serially preparatory to putting the pin of the corresponding number

and proper color on the map. Before being placed on the map the pins of students whose homes were equipped with telephones were marked with a dot after the number. This made it possible, in using the map, to ascertain the telephone nearest to a desired student whose home was not so equipped. Each marker was then placed on the map at a point indicating the home location of the student whose card bore the corresponding number.

The task of putting the markers in the proper places on the map was facilitated by having those who prepared the drawing place the initial house number of each third block on the map itself. Although considerable time was required in the first placing of the markers it is a comparatively easy task to keep the map up-to-date. At the end of each semester all of the tacks of the color representing the graduating class are removed and reassigned to the entering class. If a dot, indicating a telephone, appears on the marker of a new student who does not have a telephone the paper head is turned over and the number without a dot is placed on the previously blank side. New students and drop-outs are taken off or added to the map only at the end of each semester. New guidance cards placed in the file for entering students are assigned a number such as 72.1, thus allowing preservation of the alphabetical order and retaining numerical designation on the map.

When complete the map was hung on the wall close to the vice-principal's desk in a location most convenient for ready use during counseling. It was found useful in check-

ing, at a glance, the route and distance from home to school of students, especially when a question of tardiness or going home for lunch was involved. In making case studies of behavior-problem boys it was quite easy to discover what school associates lived near the home of the boy in question, or to ascertain the identity of neighborhood companions who were also students of the school. In checking attendance it was often possible to telephone a next-door or an across-the-alley neighbor of a boy who could not be so reached, and thus learn the cause of absence or ascertain the necessity for further check. Often a neighbor, in the same block with the home of an absentee without telephone, was called and asked if at some time during the day it might be convenient for the cause of absence of the neighbor's child to be discovered and telephoned to the school. Other cases were dispatched by calling from class a boy whose home had a telephone and who regularly passed the "phoneless" home of an absentee, the report being telephoned to the school after the messenger's return to his own home. Students who performed such tasks felt a keen responsibility for getting the information requested and often took considerable pains to secure and transmit it to the vice-principal.

Demands upon the map for locating children who were needed unexpectedly after school hours, on Saturday mornings, or at the closing or opening of the term have more than warranted its construction. Considering the many other uses to which it is daily put, it is a valuable device for any busy guidance officer.

Instances of Adaptations to Meet Individual Differences

Herman M. Wessel

"Provision for individual differences" too frequently turns out to be nothing better than smaller doses of the same prescription. The author of this article, principal of the Elkins Park Junior High School, Elkins Park, Pennsylvania, presents here a realistic discussion of some of the changes in content and method that have provided actual differentiation for the students in his school. It is not often that we can present an article that gets so much said in so few words on a problem of major importance.

IN THE traditional adaptations to meet individual differences there has been a recognition only of the intellectual and educational variations among the children. We have been more or less satisfied in our past experiences to prescribe a uniform content of material for all the people in our schools, especially in those subjects which constitute the core content and which in other words are supposed to give to the young people the habits and skills which are to be of socializing value to them.

In practical application this theory of meeting individual needs was expressed in terms of a minimum quantity of work to be covered by children of all groups. Once having covered this minimum work to the satisfaction of the teacher the child was allowed to progress and to find satisfaction for his own individual needs by doing more work of a nature more or less similar to that of the minimum, and for those who still could go beyond this point there was a further provision offering the opportunity still to do more work of a similar nature. Such a differentiation obviously is one of quantity only. It ignores completely some of the most interesting and challenging facts about children which a more detailed investigation may reveal.

The differences in the mental characteristics of children are qualitative as well as quantitative. There are differences that grow out of limitations of social backgrounds, out

of the enriched opportunities of life, and out of the emotional experiences which are provided for them. The adaptations in our schoolwork ought to respect these qualitative differences as much if not more than the quantitative ones. Upon this premise therefore there has been built up in our school the feeling that differentiation of subject matter, of content material, and of techniques of learning ought to be differences in quality and kind as well as differences in quantity.

In application this means to us that some of the joys and opportunities in creative work, no matter how simple and rudimentary in nature it may be, ought to be open to all children and not only to those who have survived the grind and routine of formal academic work. Ordinarily the children who could best profit by some of the most interesting and attractive of educational experiences were denied the opportunity to make use of them because they had not yet completed the formal assignments.

My plea is that a new approach and a new technique must be utilized in meeting the individual needs of pupils as well as a new content of material, when these pupils are supposed to be studying the same course of study. For some children who are word-minded and for whom ideas of an abstract nature are meaningful, the traditional course of study may well be covered in more or less a procedure that is well accepted as efficient and progressive. But for others for

whom abstract ideas are difficult and for whom words are merely symbols to be learned without meaning, the approach and the procedures involved must be other than those now traditionally accepted.

In our junior high school a group of young pupils whose intelligence is below the normal, whose social and economic backgrounds are very restricted, and whose emotions are such that adjustment to formal academic work is difficult, a technique has been developed by which information, skills, and thinking have developed from and around projects of a manual nature. Most of these people, motor-minded as they are, achieve a sense of reality in the study of American history; for example, in the construction and creation of manual objects. The construction of a Jamestown scene out of twigs was more real to them in their study of Jamestown and in an appreciation of the hardships of the people than any amount of reading of meaningless words and sentences. It is remarkable what the creative possibilities are of a motor-minded boy when given a box of burnt matchsticks, a can of glue, and a few other simple tools.

Fort Dearborn in miniature is the result of such stimulation in one of our history classes. A group of seventh-grade children with whom we are experimenting in the teaching of world history according to the proposed course of study find it very difficult to learn and to understand the Barbarian Invasion but the Barbarians become real people to them when they are given a few pieces of paper, some clay, and some molds. This particular seventh-grade group to which I am referring is developing a history museum in their history classroom and the heads of famous Barbarians have been reproduced in miniature out of clay and paper.

The girls in this same group of children have a new and vital interest in the Crusades since their approach to it was through the construction of miniature flags of the Crusaders themselves. For the group of

students whose mental and emotional make-up permits of an easy adjustment to our formalized and traditional content and procedures, creative opportunities in our junior high school take the form of projects involving a wide array of intellectual processes.

Historical information and facts have been the bases and the stimuli of attempts of poetry and art and cartoons. A seventh-grade group of high intelligence and school achievement as well as of happy experiences in schoolwork vitalized their study of world history through a project of writing a textbook themselves. Research work of an elementary nature derived from encyclopedias and books of knowledge as well as the texts in ordinary use give the information that is needed for the study of the topic. The book is illustrated with both original drawings and cutouts, and the cover highly decorated in a style that approaches the illuminated letters of the medieval ages. Such a project calls forth all the latent intellectual possibilities of children for whom such activity is meaningful and potential in its process of development. As for the school it correlates work of various departments and makes the contribution of each function in a life situation.

In English similar adaptations have been made in order to meet the needs of these various pupils. Not only has the content of the English work differed but the approach and the types of activity are varied so as to meet the interests and skills of the pupils in the classes. The objectives for so long set up in formal grammar and formal academic preparation have given way in the cases of our slower and less academically interested pupils to a written and spoken English that is functional, and to a reading which will encourage and develop worthy habits of leisure time even at the exclusion of the formal and timeworn classics.

Building and constructing magazines has been a project of much worth in the teaching of the proper use of English. For pupils of so-called low intelligence such a maga-

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zine appeals from its constructive and mechanical side. For those of so-called high intelligence it offers the opportunity for originality in writing and creativeness in illustration. A few of our highly intelligent children were excused from some of the required English work so as to be given time in school to write original songs and jingles for our Junior School Dramatic Night in two successive years. This same group also was given time and privileges to write the entire promotion-night pageant when they left us in 1931.

The introduction of techniques and procedures similar to those described above means a change in our fundamental philosophy of the classroom as well as its general make-up. The classroom must become the workshop and not merely the place where children sit passively by and recite words and symbols which they have acquired outside of school. The classroom which is equipped to meet the problem of individual differences adequately must not only contain the equipment of books and maps and references of a long accepted standing, but it probably will have hammers, saws, nails, and work benches.

Such a workshop will not permit conditions whereby the teacher may hear a pin drop, neither will the school furniture always be orderly and in straight array, nor will the floor be spotlessly clean. The classroom will hum and buzz with activities of varied character, and boys and girls will learn that school can be a joyous place in which to live and work.

To release school time for activities of

this sort means that there probably will be a curtailment of the amount of factual material which we shall require our boys and girls to learn and later forget. If such a change comes about in our courses of study and if we substitute for factual memorization processes of learning and activities of learning, I am a bit concerned lest the measurement of our success shall be a reliable one. Standardized tests may become conservative influences in our educational experimentation. Emphasizing as standardized tests do memorization of factual material, nothing could be simpler in our teaching than drilling for tests of this sort. Nothing could be farther from real education either, and nothing more destructive of genuine attempts to meet the problem of individual differences.

If we are to meet the problem of individual differences by differentiation in content, in material, and in differentiation of techniques we shall probably have to judge the success of our work by criteria just as varied in their nature as the content of material and procedures of teaching have been.

Whether activities of such a nature can be measured or not, those of us who work with them are convinced that our boys and girls find joy in the work and realize the meaning of it. Furthermore there is evidence that the associated and concomitant learnings of coöperation and interdependence yield far greater results in happiness as well as in permanent habits than any amount of traditional factual material that may lend itself to the measurement of an educational yardstick.

The Accumulative Case Study

Thomas E. Robinson

As supervisor of instruction at Junior High School Number Four, Trenton, New Jersey, the author has developed an uncommon common-sense practice in recording the intimate type of data which show for this boy and that girl what makes them tick. There will be a case study of every student, and every teacher who comes in contact with the child participates in the construction of the study. In twenty years it will be the general practice, or else we err in reading our stars.

RECENT revisions of courses of study and reorganizations of content material have been predicated upon the need of connecting more closely the social heritage with the nature of the child. Increasing importance has been placed upon bringing the material into more intimate and relevant contact with students. The cornerstone of the new structures has been the pupil, his interests, his capacity, his ideas, and his personal relations, instead of such customary points of reference as the Constitution of the United States, the agricultural products of Western United States, or the use of the comma in a series of words.

With this desire to make of the child the core of a curricular reorganization has come a concomitant change in the philosophy from which grows teaching technique. It is evident that the teacher who is attempting to bring subject matter into intimate and relevant contact with students must adopt as her point of departure the capacities and interests and social status of the pupils as they then are individually. Each aspect of the life of the individual child, as an end result of the teaching method, must be so directed outward that finally the slender thread of his personal life may be interwoven with the whole life of his society.

Such a conception demands of the teacher an unprecedented familiarity with child life in general and with the lives of the individuals in her class in particular, for her teaching must well from her knowledge of the springs from which her particular stu-

dents derive their individuality—springs which are described in no textbook, and must be carefully and minutely examined by her after the classes have been organized.

It is manifestly impossible to base instruction entirely upon a knowledge of the individuals. Conscientious teachers despair when faced with classes that have grown to unprecedented size. They have been forced, through analysis of their class, to find common denominators. They have looked with favor upon projects, units, contracts, individualized assignments, three-track courses, and a multitude of teaching devices. Such recourses have proved valuable as long as the underlying aim has been to build outward from individuals, or small groups arbitrarily united on the basis of a degree of homogeneity in one of more characteristics, such groupings to be constantly shifting to bring other characteristics to light.

But even where small groups, somewhat homogeneous in at least one respect, are used as the point of departure from which teaching method originates, the implication is that the teacher who has formed the groups has in the background of her action a wide knowledge of the lives of the individuals who compose the groups.

In the elementary school it is often common custom for one teacher to maintain contact with her children in every subject during the day. The great advantage of this practice is that the teacher is enabled to observe the reactions of the child in a larger

number of experiences. She derives a more comprehensive view of each of her charges. In the junior high school, where the homeroom teacher observes her children in perhaps two subjects, and in the senior high school where an even greater degree of departmentalization is practised, opportunities for contact with individual children are more limited in scope. The difficulties in the way of greater knowledge of the pupil are enhanced.

Despite the fact that a comprehensive knowledge of the individual is acknowledged to be the springboard of all teaching, little has been done to make available such knowledge. To be sure, each child has in the office archives a permanent record bearing his name, his age, various educational indices, the number of children in the family, the occupational status of his parents, health abnormalities, and similar objective items. But the personality of the child, his problems, his attitudes, his tastes, his distastes, his ideas, his home environment, and his everyday personal reactions to current experiences in his society must be discovered by every teacher who meets him. Rarely is it possible for the instructor to discover in the short course of a year sufficient data regarding the individual to permit her to use the nature of the child as a point of departure in her teaching. Moreover, the data finally gathered are not transmitted to the teacher of the next higher grade. She, too, must by a long, wasteful period of observation, trial-and-error tactics, and home visitations tread the path over which so many former teachers have labored.

The case study has long been used by educators as an instrument by which the traits, capacities, interests, and environment of an individual may be summarized and integrated in a definite pattern, with derivative implications for remedial work on the part of the school. Unfortunately it has been used chiefly by psychologists, pathologists, educators, and psychiatrists almost entirely in the study of problem cases, but

there is no reason that its use should be restricted to abnormal children. If the case-study method is educationally valuable in that it furnishes the foundation for present understanding and future growth, then every child—problem, average, or superior—should be ensured equal opportunity to secure its benefits.

DISADVANTAGES OF CASE STUDIES AS COMMONLY USED

Every disadvantage listed herein is not inherently a fault of the case study as an instrument. Rather is it the result of accumulated custom, prejudice, and administration. As will be shown hereafter, each of these disadvantages can be overcome by slight changes in present practice.

1. At present case studies are commonly used only for problem individuals. If they are educationally effective, all children, in a democracy, should benefit from them.

2. It is impossible for a homeroom teacher who sees the child usually less than an hour each school day, at a time when his every reaction is specifically stimulated, to secure a totalitarian view of the youth. A child in English may be an entirely different boy in mathematics, or music, or automobile repairing. When only one person compiles a case study, a lack of balance and perspective results.

3. Techniques by which compiled material may be utilized effectively have not yet been evolved. In most instances where studies have been formulated, such studies become the property of the formulator or the principal. They are not accessible to others. In fact an aura of secrecy surrounds the entire report.

4. Case studies which, to be worthy of the name, should indicate remedial or constructive measures, rarely permit of addenda and reports of progress. A child grows; a case study ordinarily does not. For this reason a case study may be worthless several months after its data have been compiled.

5. Succeeding homeroom teachers are

obliged to duplicate previous efforts because of inaccessibility of the case records made by former teachers. Often a seventh-grade teacher will make a case study of a child. The eighth-grade teacher will do likewise, and the entire procedure will be duplicated the next year. Each teacher feels obliged to repeat home visits. Each teacher must lose precious weeks of guidance until by trial and error she discovers the interests, abilities, personalities, character traits, and the methods by means of which pupils may be appealed to. Teachers to be efficient must have an itemized accounting of every bit of pupil material in their classes. They do not at present have such an accounting.

6. Case studies are usually not sent to higher institutions to enable them to carry on the same campaign of growth. They, too, must learn only by experience. Would industry send an automobile to a new owner without telling him that the front wheel is out of alignment and that best results can be obtained only by using "Sunbeam" gasoline?

7. The greatest drawback to the universal use of the case study is the fact that teachers do not trust themselves to use without prejudice the information contained. The writer feels that teachers do not give themselves sufficient credit. He has in his experience met no teacher who has given evidence of marked unfairness because of *more complete information*. Often teachers are unfair because all the facts are not known. Ignorance begets unfairness. Case studies dispel ignorance.

WHAT SHALL BE IN THE CASE STUDIES?

Many teachers say, "Anything that does not prejudice me against the pupil." The writer would say, "Everything that can conceivably affect the school life of the child."

In frequent discussions of the problem, teachers quite generally have declared that they do not desire information of the following types:

1. They do not desire to know if the child

is dishonest. They feel that a child should have the privilege of beginning anew each year. They believe that a teacher's tactfully watchful eye would militate against reformation.

2. They do not desire to know the institutional records of children. If a pupil transfers from a reformatory, that is the pupil's own concern.

3. Several teachers have remonstrated greatly against the inclusion in case studies of unusual biological details. Much discussion preceded decision in one instance, relative to the advisability of noting the fact that a boy was the son of a Hungarian man and a Negro woman, although, in the writer's opinion, that fact lent aid in analyzing the youth's general mental processes and his social life, and furnished an adequate background against which one could comprehend and sympathize with the rather confused temperamental reactions he displayed in certain phases of the social studies, such as the discussion of the Civil War in history class.

4. Many family matters, some teachers feel, are private matters, and should remain private. Family scandals, diseases, separations, and quarrels fall into this category.

The conclusion seems inescapable that teachers (1) prefer their cloistered life; they do not wish to come into contact with realistic life situations. (2) Teachers still consider the teaching of subject matter their chief objective. They make no demur at learning the I.Q. and reading age of a child, for they will help them to understand why Johnny has trouble with his geography. But they rebel at learning information about Johnny that will aid them in shaping a character already somewhat distorted by abnormal life pressures. (3) Teachers have not entirely broken away from mass education. They are not yet ready to practise to the fullest extent the dictum: Each child is an individual and must be taught as an individual, in keeping with his abilities, capacities, needs, and interests.

The following plan suggests how the case-

study method can be so organized as to become very effective in acquainting teachers with the children in their care. It is believed that the plan overcomes the disadvantages under which the case-study method now operates. Local conditions may necessitate minor changes in the suggested administration, but it is believed that basically this plan can be utilized profitably in a large number of schools.

1. A case study is written of every individual student, whether he be problem, average, or superior.

2. Every teacher who comes in contact with the child participates in the construction of the study. One of two procedures may be used. One person, perhaps, the vice-principal, may in conference with the homeroom teacher gather the nucleus of the report, which may then be written tentatively, returned to the homeroom teacher for editing, and from her find its way in turn to all academic and nonacademic teachers who add comments in the light of their experiences with the child. Another administrative variation permits of the homeroom teacher writing the report in collaboration with all the teachers concerned. The first method burdens one person with an immense amount of work, but it does ensure a greater degree of uniformity in the quality of the report and in the approach to the understanding of the nature of each child. The latter procedure equalizes the burden on all teachers, and has the added advantage of keeping each step in the formulation of the studies in the hands of the persons who presumably understand the child most thoroughly. In either case, the studies should be typed in convenient form by the secretary.

3. Frequent, periodic opportunities are provided for checking and noting the progress of the child. Perhaps two or three times a year the case studies, which are always available to teachers in an accessible place in the office, are returned to the teachers, who in this way renew their knowledge of the background of the pupil, add com-

ments concerning the recent growth of the child, and perhaps append suggestions anent further desired achievement.

4. Each teacher in succeeding grades will know her pupils before she meets them in class. Previous to the opening of school she will receive the cards of the pupils scheduled with her. Her management of the class during that first crucial week should be, under such circumstances, more intelligent.

5. Duplication of effort and waste of time on the part of succeeding teachers will be eliminated. The report will constantly be building on previous experiences of former teachers. Home visits and costly trial-and-error methods need not be repeated. The report grows with the child.

6. The accumulative case study will accompany the transfer card of the child into the next higher school. The child may expect from his new teachers, therefore, more intelligent and more sympathetic guidance.

The accumulative case studies in schools where they have operated usually have taken a narrative form despite the fact that in the gathering of material a list of desired types of information is utilized to ensure a more adequate coverage of the subject. A guide sheet containing divisions similar to those given below is usually formulated by the teachers of the school previous to the inauguration of the project. It is understood that a child's life cannot be arbitrarily segmented into anticipated departments. Teachers have found, however, that guide sheets do minimize the danger of haphazard investigation with its resulting unbalanced perspective.

GUIDE SHEET

For Gathering Case-Study Material

1. Student's ability to do schoolwork
 - a) Indices—age, reading ability, I.Q.
 - b) Specific subject weaknesses and strengths
 - c) Attitude toward school
2. Home environment
 - a) Economic condition of parents
 - b) Other members of family
 - c) Homework conditions
 - d) Type of parental control

- e) Attitude of parents toward school
- f) Attitude of child toward his home
- g) Home duties and pleasures
- h) Miscellaneous virtues and defects of home life
- 3. Interests of the child
 - a) Hobbies and their sources
 - b) School activities in which he participates
 - c) Ways of spending leisure time
- 4. Classroom attitude of pupil
 - a) Typical reactions to classroom stimuli
 - b) Probable causes of such reactions
- 5. Best methods of appealing to child
- 6. Type of companions he enjoys
 - a) Results
 - b) Names of companions who benefit him especially
 - c) Names of companions whose influence is bad
- 7. Character traits
 - a) Methods by which his best traits are being capitalized
 - b) Methods by which his character defects are being remedied
- 8. Achievements and failures of pupils (This does not refer to curricular ratings, which can be found on the permanent records.)
- 9. Personality of child
- 10. Health of child, and its effect on his perspective

It has been found that examples illustrating the pupil's outstanding characteristics are more revealing than ungarnished statements of defects and virtues. Naturally many of the items in the guide sheet will overlap. The narrative form of the final report eliminates duplications, however, and permits a view of the whole child in his relation to society, with a minimum of gaps, half-lights, and uncertainties.

Since the studies themselves are not written by experts, they leave much to be desired in content and in interpretation. Once begun, however, the project should gather momentum. Teachers, through use of the studies, should increase in ability to select the salient points in children's characters. Their quality of observation should quicken. And above all their consciousness of the necessity of utilizing the material in their classroom teaching should immeasurably enrich their teaching technique.

The following examples of typical accumulative case studies will illustrate the

method by which the studies are kept constantly in consonance with the growth of the child through incremental addition.

TYPICAL ACCUMULATIVE CASE STUDIES

June 1934. Columbus, Albert, 105 I.Q.; average reading ability.

Albert has average ability, but is prevented from achieving satisfactorily by a calculating indolence. He carefully gauges the amount of work he must do to pass. He is easily appealed to, but such stimulation is but momentary. His behavior is satisfactory in classes where he likes the teacher. He likes teachers who grant him little favors. Such concessions flatter his ego. He is a good thinker in discussions, and is a wily arguer, despite the fact that his foundational knowledge is very superficial. He finds it hard to take an examination without cheating. His personality is arresting, unless he wishes it to be otherwise. He relies on his personality to make soft his path. His brothers made fine records in school. His parents are disappointed in him. His mother candidly admits that he has slipped out of her control. He ran away from home three months ago; and, after a great alarm had been raised, he returned and was welcomed with open arms. He had found sleeping in the pines near the shore quite chilly. His mother permits him to be absent for the most trivial of illnesses, many of which are believed to be imaginary. He has performed no service to the school, except that of keeping out of active trouble. His brothers took an academic course. His parents want him to take the same. He has been advised against it because of a great disability in exploratory Latin. He can never be depended upon. Efforts have been made to stiffen the home control, particularly by requesting the mother to be more firm in the matter of absences and in the matter of homework by encouraging a regular time for study. The regularity of homework has increased, but the quantity of one-day trivial illnesses has not. His one great hobby is raising pigeons.

January 1935. Albert is failing Latin, which he took against advice. After two slight illnesses, his habits of absence took a decided turn for the better, especially since at our request the nurse visited him each day of absence early in the morning. At the same time he was given the care of the goldfish in the science room. He has become interested. The loss of one fish through negligence has made him most dependable in this one respect, and seems to have made him more interested in school projects. He is a can-

didate for the chorus in the school operetta.

June 1935. Was removed from operetta cast four days before performance for smoking in lavatory during rehearsal. Was made to feel his disloyalty to the cast, and the effect of his weakness on innocent colleagues. Was subdued, but seems to be taking his punishment in good part. Will enter high school with a condition in Latin, which he will attempt to remove in summer school.

January 1935. Ford, William, 108 I.Q.; average reading ability.

A quick, handsome boy, a new entrant from a parochial school. He glories in his influence over several companions. He has refused to do any work, and actively opposes the class in all their plans. He is jealous of the class president who is, he says, a "sissy." He inflicted violence, after school, on the president for reporting a "cut" period. He probably can do the work, but has failed in every subject every month because of his attitude. The principal has contacted him twice. He has been transferred to an ungraded class, where the work, which is simpler, requires an extra year for graduation. His friends were not sent with him.

June 1935. After two weeks of sullenness, William began to show his real ability. With special assignments he soon caught up to his previous class. After a conference in the office, he was transferred back to a regular ninth-grade class; not to his former class, but to the fastest moving section in the grade. He had no time for anything but work. He graduated with low marks. His teachers agree he can do tenth-grade work. Firmness is required in all dealings with him.

June 1934. Lavine, Isaac, 118 I.Q.; above average reading ability.

His eyesight necessitates a front seat; otherwise he is a roly-poly healthy boy, with a great interest in the band. He is honest, fairly industrious, eager to coöperate, and is most anxious to succeed and get good marks. Rather babyish and immature, and annoying at times over trifles. Has been given free instrumental lessons in school for two years. Likes to be teased and noticed by the teachers. Not particularly popular among the boys who dislike his aggressive lack of sincerity. His parents take a great interest in his progress.

February 1935. Elected vice-president of the band. He attends regularly, but is not a firm leader. Checks upon his progress—i.e., marks—con-

stantly. Eagerly attempts to remedy any shortcomings pointed out to him by his teachers.

June 1935. Was not considered for honor-society admission because of lack of leadership and all-round service. On graduation night his parents loudly and indignantly decried the fact that Isaac was not given either an honor society key or the coveted citizenship certificate. Declared Isaac had used his own drum in the orchestra and had received no reward. Minimized the value of the instrumental training he had received in the band, saying that he owed nothing to the school. Parents and child are not appreciative unless they get everything in sight in the line of honors.

The studies reproduced above have been in use only for a period of approximately one year. As time progresses, a more detailed picture of growth should result. Admittedly there is much that could be added. Where certain aspects of the child are omitted, the implication is that nothing of significance has been discovered.

The scope of this paper has been limited to the pupil case record, as an aid to instruction, guidance, and understanding. As a supplement, studies should be made of the figures at the other end of the log—the teachers. In every school personalities clash. Frequently teachers and pupils by very nature are destined to produce friction and even detonations. Officials whose duty it is to classify pupils must attempt to place pupils as far as is possible in classes where child and teacher will work together as a harmonious unit. Case studies of teachers must constantly be kept by the classifying agent, in mind if not on paper. It is not the purpose of this article, however, to develop this thesis.

If the making of case studies does nothing more than lend emphasis to the need of fulsome knowledge of the background of the individual child, against which a foreground can be sketched line by line by teachers in the course of their instruction, accumulative case studies will be valuable, however imperfectly they are constructed.

Is It the Right Answer?

John M. Brewer

Unless your students are wise and competent in directing their own daily affairs, it is not likely that as adults they will provide direction toward a better world. One today is worth many tomorrows in the author's philosophy. Professor Brewer, well known to THE CLEARING HOUSE readers, is associate professor of education at Harvard University.

FOUR AIMS, among others, are sometimes advanced for liberal or general education. Historically and until recently a very common aim was that the schools should acquaint their pupils with classical literary culture, preferably in the original languages. A later aim which has been flourishing more recently is that the pupils should be made acquainted with modern literary and scientific culture. These two aims are still largely dominant in the thought of many educators, and they still contain important hints, because of the fact that literary culture is supposed to have preserved for us the excellencies of life through the ages, and therefore must not be ignored. However, as alleged aims of education, they are decidedly inadequate and are so considered by most serious students of education at the present time.

A third aim is now very prominent and is expressed by those who hold that schools and colleges should prepare for adult activities in a realistic modern world. This aim brings forward particularly the social studies, and it implies that the problems of democracy, international relations, industry, community life, and the like, should be set before the pupils more or less in panoramic fashion, either with or without a positive invitation to more or less specific action.

Parallel with this aim some other educators are proposing the more modest objective of helping young people in their present tasks of carrying on their individual and coöperative activities. The contrasting of these two last aims is the purpose of the present paper.

All teachers must sympathize heartily with the effort to make the social studies more effective and to introduce courses on problems of democracy, as well as prepare children for taking their place in solving the real problems which the adults of the present generation will leave unsolved. Much credit must be given to textbook writers and teachers who are facing unafraid the important issues involved in free discussion of controversial questions. All must admit that the next generation must consider such matters, and that no amount of acquaintance with our cultural heritage can by itself prepare for the solution of the problems of the real world of today.

One may question, however, whether this aim of fitting children for the solution of adult problems can succeed except through a real effort to achieve first the fourth aim; namely, preparing children for the solution of their present juvenile problems.

We should not need to remind ourselves of Plato's teaching that one who is to govern others must first learn to govern himself, and this may be paraphrased into the concept that those who are to govern coöperatively in adult society must first begin to learn to govern coöperatively in the management of their present problems while they are young. We are asked to teach problems of adult democracy, but are we not at the same time neglecting to teach the theory and practice of juvenile democracy? Shall we be able to teach democracy in the *large* unless we arrange for study of and practice in democracy in the *small*? We are asked

to have the school bring about a new social order; might we not first make sure that young people are taught to order their own activities better and to organize and improve the coöperative life in which they are now active?

Hopes are expressed by educators that young people will learn how to save capitalism (or that they will learn how to organize what is somewhat indefinitely called a "collectivist society"). But we are giving insufficient attention to the difficult task of guiding these same young people in protecting the good, overturning the evil, and organizing and conserving the better in their own juvenile society of today.

College and university classes are being organized to teach students how the ills of political life and of party struggle should be corrected, but these same students are offered no simplified theory and graded practice in developing, regulating, and perfecting a body politic on the campus. Those who profit by graft in political and business life can operate a little longer if we continue to hope that knowledge and good will without guided practice will suffice.

If, then, under the adult-preparatory aim, we can teach but knowledge and attitudes, why not recognize that this aim cannot be the right answer? Why not explore the more direct method of helping youth live better their present lives?

There is a peculiar theory abroad that the task of living the life of a fourteen-year-old child is an easy proposition—so easy in fact that the child of this age has a great deal of leisure time in which he may study what he ought to do at the age of thirty or forty. I, for one, believe this assumption to be thoroughly unsound. The task of being an eight-year-old child, a twelve-year-old child, or a person of any age whatever is sufficiently difficult to occupy most of the time which that child in the nature of things ought to devote to study. I know that in the artificial world of the school we must deal in futures

to a certain extent, but I believe we are still overdoing that matter outrageously, and at the same time neglecting the real education of the child.

The accompanying proposal for a curriculum at the high-school level is doubtless justly subject to a great many criticisms, all of which the author would welcome. It seems to him a fairly satisfactory compromise between the notion of preparing for the realistic problems of adult society, and aiding the pupils now in their present activities. Moreover, its studies can be made sufficiently to point toward the problems of adult society, on the principle that each activity of the curriculum can be used as a lens through which the pupil can see and understand the later activities of life.¹

It will be noted that although this curriculum deals with guidance, it does not offer any courses in which elements from many fields of guidance are drawn together in one course. In other words, its division of labor is based upon the several major kinds of life activities, which, in the opinion of the writer, should not be fused.

I realize that many good writers and experimenters in education have successfully fused units from various activities, and I believe that both procedures should go forward experimentally for some years until the better may win out. Tactically it seems that such fusion occurred merely because but one small unit of guidance was allowed in the curriculum, and the authorities in charge wished to make the most of it by spreading it out over several activities. With the increase of time for guidance in the curriculum, a genuine classification and division of labor will be necessary.

If fusion of activity areas for purposes of teaching has its dangers, what about fusion of subject matter? Certain experimenting public schools in California are fusing the

¹ For a fuller explanation of this notion of the telescope and lens, see John M. Brewer, *Education as Guidance* (New York: the Macmillan Company, 1932), page 228.

PROPOSED CURRICULUM FOR PUPILS OF SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

NOTE: This is a tentative and hypothetical curriculum, for that small group which requires no beginning of vocational education. The arrangement of studies is largely arbitrary. It is assumed that the pupils were well guided in the junior-high-school grades. In the senior high school they will be offered an extensive array of activities, including musical, dramatic, and artistic work, student government, clubs, athletics, and other forms of recreation. Groups resembling classes will be organized for some of these, and all taught activities should be treated as integral parts of the pupil's curriculum. In addition, adequate provision must be made for individual counseling. All these several items should receive recognition as meeting graduation requirements. The list below consists chiefly of academic classes, for instruction and discussion. It is understood that every course will be based first on the present living activities and problems of the pupils, and that from this present point of view some of the problems of adult living may be discussed.

TENTH GRADE

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. School adjustment and how to study | 6. Problems of home relationships I |
| 2. Junior citizenship I | 7. Problems and opportunities of leisure time I |
| 3. Everyday ethics I | 8. Vocational tryout experiences |
| 4. Personal well-being and safety I | 9. Vocational information I |
| 5. Oral English—techniques of everyday speaking | 10. Written composition |

ELEVENTH GRADE

- | | |
|-------------------------------|--|
| 11. Musical standards | 16. Artistic standards |
| 12. Methods of thinking | 17. Problems and opportunities of leisure II |
| 13. Techniques of coöperation | 18. Cases in ethics II |
| 14. Recreational reading I | 19. Recreational writing |
| 15. Applied literature I | 20. Applied literature II |

TWELFTH GRADE

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| 21. Recreational reading II | 26. Junior and adult citizenship II |
| 22. Mental hygiene | 27. Cultural standards |
| 23. Problems of industrial life | 28. Personal and social well-being II |
| 24. Elements of a life philosophy | 29. Educational opportunities |
| 25. Problems of home relationships II | 30. Vocational information II |

History and civics books may be used in recreational reading and as references for 2, 23, and 26. Science books may be used for reading in leisure time; the rest, with mathematics, delayed until a vocational curriculum begins. No. 12 will refer to elementary principles of both science and mathematics, but will in no sense involve fusion. Foreign languages may be offered as an extra study; for other pupils delayed till college or later.

social studies and English into one two-hour unit course. (This combination is often called a "core subject"; we forget that the core is usually thrown away!) Such a mixture of subject matter puts great strain upon teachers, textbooks, librarians, and supervisors. It is difficult to see how balance among important objectives is to be obtained, in view of diverse teacher specialties and interests, to say nothing of the desirable *sharpening* of specific aims themselves.

Consider the development of good taste in literature; how will such a class contribute to relief from the current interest in writing which leans toward excessive naturalism, animalism, and futility, and help to build

up interest in humanistic standards? In fairness, however, one must admit that English teachers have had scant success in this same goal; our fear is that in a composite class they might never even formulate the aim.

Will fusion of this kind lead to a jumble and jungle of subject-matter items and to confusion of aims? The answer is of large importance.

But fusion or no fusion we are still in the realm and rule of mere subject matter—knowledge and attitudes—with no *plenum* of present living. To the present writer all such experiments seem essentially *alibis*. Asked to do something for the life of the young, we reply by reorganizing our stuff.

The child cries aloud to us from every newspaper (witness the criminal acts of children still in school), asking for the bread of guided life activity now. We offer him fancy new titles of nothing but subject matter: World Culture, American Problems, Contemporary Life, Social Culture, Story of Democracy, The American Epic, etc., etc.

Worse, as will be noticed from an inspection of these courses, most of them involve the historical approach. But there is no inevitable necessity for or validity in such an access. The school lunchroom does not offer a course in the history of eating before opening its doors for business.

Teachers of such courses are absent from the firing line of how to be a genuinely successful boy or girl now; hence my use of the word *alibi*.

If these fused studies lead for a short time to confusion of thought and standards, and if they promptly reveal their relative unimportance in the contemporary lives of boys and girls, they may result in the negative good of pointing to the need for real education, and so may turn teachers toward their real tasks.

We are greatly hampered in our thought of education by the loose use of words. I have before me from two prominent cities in the United States a book related to character education and another on citizenship, each prepared by committees of teachers. Both books attempt to cover all of life, while at the same time they neglect the obvious needs both in the case of character education and in the case of citizenship. Should we make the word "character" cover all of life? Obviously not. It should confine itself to work on the *ethical aspects* of life problems. Citizenship likewise ought to be limited to the *official relationships of life*, training in which is desperately needed at

the present moment, and certainly neglected. We see nine tenths of the world's population outside the benefits of democracy, and the remaining one tenth in some danger of slipping back. Yet when we come to the discussion of citizenship, instead of going at exactly that problem we discuss also leisure time, vocational guidance, home membership, and indeed all the other specific parts of life and education. The consequence is that American schools have contributed very little indeed, in spite of some good experiments in student self-government, toward a combination of practice and theory in civic relationships which might be expected to carry over into adult problems.²

Incidentally, both of the books above mentioned, although written by teachers and although containing much valuable material, neglect the provision of exercises for classroom use. Apparently we are still far from an effective resolution to disturb the traditionally and relatively useless studies of the present liberal-arts curriculum.

This paper then is somewhat in opposition to the notion that school or college students can live an unexamined and unguided life in their present juvenile environment while at the same time studying adult problems which they will have the will and wit to solve when they grow up and become full citizens.

The contrasting proposition may be stated somewhat as follows: The best preparation which the child can have for solving his problems well throughout his life is to learn to solve well his individual and coöperative problems of today; the best insurance for his wise activity in the future is the development of wise self-activity now.

² One of the California schools assumes that the social studies should cover government, family, occupation, religion, and education! When will civics and history teachers do a good job on the first?

Interrelation of Fine Arts and Academic Subjects

Margaret Chapin

We invited Miss Chapin, art instructor at University High School, Ann Arbor, Michigan, to set down some of the principles by which she secures such distinguished work in her classes. Hers is no ivory tower, high and mighty, holier-than-thou kind of art, but an art that is, on occasion, handmaiden to every other phase of the school program. Our lack of facilities to use the illustrations the author submitted with her article is in some measure offset by the vividness with which she has described certain projects her students have completed.

HAVING been asked to tell about some phase of our problem in art education as we are trying to solve it, I am choosing to link it with the general topic of interrelation always so vital a consideration in our work. I am sure there is nothing revolutionary in any of our practices, but there may be a few methods or materials of value to some one.

A word or two in explanation of our conditions for work, programs, and size of classes. They are largely very favorable. We are now located in a desirable large arts and crafts room. It is really a suite as we have the use of a small adjoining room serving as a shop and also a stockroom, so light and commodious that I was tempted to move in a desk and call it an office. As to equipment we have rather a good supply of cupboards and a sink as well as a set of desks of the variety that will accommodate portfolios for such of the students' work as comes within the twelve by eighteen size. We attempt to be very economical in the purchase of supplies but less so in getting equipment so that gradually we are having more and more to show. Our sixth year finds us with everything necessary to do a great variety of problems in drawing and painting, modeling and casting, and large and small metal work. The metal work is reserved for the more advanced classes.

In the seventh and eighth grades all pupils

are required to take either fine or industrial arts. Since these are offered at the same hour, the result is an industrial-arts class for the boys and fine arts for the girls. I am not alone in feeling regretful of this arrangement, and when the school has grown to the size where its program can be more flexible there will be some change that will make some form of general art training open to both sexes.

Both industrial and fine arts are treated as electives through the ninth grade and the senior high school. But here the rather small size of the school demands that the senior high school must come as a mixed group. The outcome in this case is a large class varying in training from one to five years. Those who have less than two years' previous work are girls from other schools where perhaps there has been no drawing offered, or boys from our own school who have taken industrial arts. In either case it seems unfair to exclude them. This results necessarily, but quite desirably, in a very informal type of work based on individual interests. The variety of equipment is quite a point here. The work in drawing may be still-life figure work, or even the painting of a stage drop; the work in design may be the drafting of a small problem or the completion of a batik; the modeling may be in any of its stages—clay, plaster-casting, bronzing, or the making of papier-

maché masks; and the metal work may be represented by some who are pounding out copper bowls, while five or six problems of sawing, soldering, and stone setting are going on in another group. There seems little chance for the teacher to teach. Her work must be limited to individual or group criticism. Occasionally an entire period is set aside for discussion of the theories involved and the tools and processes used, or at some other time the teacher's work is given over to the careful checking up of various problems covered and processes mastered.

The motivation in this group and in the ninth grade as well is so largely the desire for the finished product that it seldom needs emphasis as a means of enriching some other subject. The exceptions are rather interesting. By way of studying various schools of painting, and incidentally of selecting some prints for the school, we had an exhibit of them. This necessitated publicity and guides and picture study, making a good point of contact with the English department. There are times when the academic departments can be made of much service to us. One pupil has been using her chemistry to answer her problems in coloring a copper bowl and in launching some etching.

Then there is the poster. On one occasion I excused from a simple color problem those who wished to make posters for the senior play. The problem was four times as large and twice as exacting, yet half a dozen pupils were thrilled to do it. But on the whole in our ninth-grade and senior-high-school classes where there is more crafts work as a part of the program, there is little need of interrelation as a means of creating interest.

One of our jolliest opportunities to make art work tie up with that of the other classes was one of our Christmas plays. There is always a play or pageant at Christmas time and the art department helps with each program but I cite this one for various reasons. The name and theme are most familiar—

"Why the Chimes Rang." We were asked for our suggestions. In the position of "askee" I should like to commend this particular "asker." She came to see us early. She hoped for the largest contribution we could make. She came and read the play to the classes, was on the alert for the first signs of progress while interest was high, and praised the finished work.

Three classes were interested in working for it. The seventh and eighth grades were happy to have the stage handed over to them and the ninth graders, feeling rather proficient in figure drawing, chose the costume design. Altogether we made a large portfolio full of plans—stage views, window designs, costume drawings, all imbued with the spirit of the Middle Ages but honest and original, a fascinating combination.

The windows were especially so. Some were carried out on tracing paper richly colored and shellacked and set between two papers cut out to fit the gothic shape. Then the work was done on a large scale. In the case of the windows a combination of two of the best designs was used. Four girls were needed to carry it out to scale about six by ten feet. It also was done on transparent paper with heavy strips of paper between the different parts of the window and heavy ink for leading. It was placed high on the stage and as only the lower two thirds of the original design was actually reproduced it gave the impression of going on and up to great heights. The same effect was gained by the other architectural features done in chalk, but true to scale and positively illustrative. The window was most effective with a diffused glow of electric light behind it.

An altar was built by another group and a tryptich altar panel was done largely in gold and white. The first scene called for the interior of a cottage. This was furnished by short wings, one of them including a fireplace and one a window coldly lighted. The back wall was made by drawing a heavy curtain across to conceal the church view. When it was time for the miraculous ap-

pearance of the church, the silent drawing of the curtain while the lights were all subdued was most effective.

Nothing, of course, offers any greater opportunity for group work than such problems for the stage. But anything handed over to us as a whole is to be desired. One group anxious to model figures did little plasticene figurines expressive of costume history. They are four years old now and one or two have lost a head or hand but they stand in the social-science room still serving their purpose. They really should ask us for new ones. Nothing gives us a better chance to be relaxed and work on a large scale, to forget our artistic inhibitions, than making backgrounds, signs, posters, animals for the circus—the girls' annual fun-making spree. There are other departments that should be mentioned. Seventh-grade elementary geometry and design forms are linked and music and stage effects meet in the pageant or opera.

The other type of call based on individual needs or interest often comes to us. This is particularly true of pupils in English or social science. There may be stimulation from the teachers of these subjects as would be natural. Frequently, however, the stimulation comes from the pupil as a surprise to us. Typical of these is the discovery that a report on *Ivanhoe* may be a set of drawings, or a relief which entails modeling and casting, or a piece of soap carving, and that it may legitimately take some of the art period.

Students of social science have made sphinxes and pyramids and temples and dia-

grams and maps. I am often impressed by the way the student will carry this type of problem much farther than he or she has carried similar work in class. It is to the everlasting credit of the academic teacher who inspires such results and who recognizes original creative effort.

Of course, I am hoping that this will not seem to imply that we do not start with a beautiful program all squared off by the month and week with the subjects we wish to include, but it is an increasingly flexible plan. We do, of course, aim to stress all the fundamentals of creative art expression. In the junior-high-school grades, especially the seventh, which is the joy of my heart, a very large part of the work is subjective with much emphasis on rhythm and color. There is generally some form of design, since craft work is important for the pre-Christmas weeks. We do still life, figure drawing, and out-of-door work as the interest warrants, and still with the emphasis on design. There is little in the way of individual criticism, but the work is frequently lined up, the class selecting the outstanding ones, a procedure that is perhaps too general to deserve mention. I am always newly impressed with the tendency of the class as a whole to select well.

The biggest value of the interrelationship factor is the larger audience, the sense of personal discovery of art as a means of expression, and, with these things, the desire for a finer degree of workmanship and a broader knowledge.

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The Experimental Curriculum at Wisconsin High School

H. H. Ryan

The University of Wisconsin has been conspicuous among the American institutions of higher learning where new things are planned and carried out. No wonder, then, that its demonstration high school, Wisconsin High School, at Madison, should choose to take large strides and keep in step. The author, principal of the school, has written some notes upon their latest adventure blazing a new trail through the curricular wilderness.

THE POINT OF VIEW

IN ACCEPTING the invitation of the Progressive Education Association to join the group of schools commissioned to conduct experiments in the secondary-school curriculum, Wisconsin High School has been impressed with the responsibility which rests upon these schools. The unprecedented liberties which are a part of the plan, and the critical importance of the experiment itself, seem to us to argue for two things:

1. Whatever the participating school does by way of experiment should be so definite a departure from common procedure that the outcomes could not be credited or debited to the similarities between the experiment and the established practice.

2. The cue for the direction of such a departure is most likely to be found in some major omission or misconception or misdirection in the established practice.

In brief support of this latter point, it may be said that while unmistakable improvement can be made in the achievements of any secondary school through extraordinary improvement in the facilities which make up the institution—personnel, building, equipment, materials, and supplies—a wholesale demonstration of that fact would, in times like these, be neither news nor encouragement to the rank and file of secondary schools. If, however, a definite change in procedure can be shown to yield results of a kind we have not generally achieved in

the past, such changes will be of immediate interest to all those in secondary education.

The thoughtful schoolman can treat himself to an interesting experience by attempting to place himself upon a lookout where his perspective will not be affected by the nearness of his current professional experiences. If from such a point he can manage a comprehensive view of the history of American public schools two guiding principles of educational practice will stand out in the picture. One of these belongs to the elementary school and the other to the secondary. Almost from the very beginning, our elementary schools have followed the guiding principle of tool skills; and our secondary schools have followed the guiding principle of intellectual exercise.

It is this latter fact from which Wisconsin High School takes its cue in the present enterprise. Those persons who have guided our secondary education in the past have been, for the most part, men and women who as products of college training found intellectual exercise a satisfying experience. It is not strange that they have assumed that this type of activity will serve all of the purposes of secondary education. The circumstances and conditions of community life in the pioneer and colonial days of this nation contained little to suggest for the secondary-school curriculum emphases other than intellectual ones. And in the past half century American life has changed with

such bewildering rapidity that in this respect secondary-school practice has fallen farther and farther behind the times.

The traditions by which we have been restrained are of course older than this nation. The teachings of monasticism discredited for educational purposes all attention to better use of terrestrial things, and applauded as a virtue and as an ideal the mortification of the flesh. In medieval times and even in the early history of this country, the more conscious man became of the difficulties which beset the mere job of living, the more discouraged he became about his apparently hopeless task of overcoming those difficulties. Certainly life was often looked upon not only as a temporary thing but as a mere incident in the whole of life; and the weary and disheartened traveler sang, "I am but a stranger here, Heaven is my home!"

The majority of the problems which troubled our forefathers in America grew out of the task of existing in the new country. And today the mere task of living in America as we find it is responsible for a long list of problems. In those days living was a great deal more difficult than it is now. On the other hand, living today is a great deal more complex than it was then. The problem is still with us but its attributes have changed. The means by which people managed to live then, although they called upon stern qualities of fortitude, endurance, courage, and determination, were after all not based upon the kind of preparation which should be given in school. But today the things that we do in carrying on our ordinary life are based upon skills and understandings which in themselves represent a definite level of intelligence. Things that could be taught the colonial youth about the problem of survival were so simple that they could be taught him at home; today the typical home is no longer competent to do this. Our life has changed and the home has changed.

The most fitting word for the problem

which has taken on this new complexity is "adjustment." Man is born into an environment, the immediate part of which we call the world. However well he may have been naturally adjusted to that world at some time in his biological past, he now finds himself, so far as the original equipment is concerned, very much unadjusted to it. Every human being, therefore, who is born into a typical American community in the year 1936 faces first and foremost a long and complex training whose purpose is an adequate adjustment to the world.

The American secondary-school curriculum does not make a systematic attack upon this problem. It offers the pupil intellectual exercise in the hope of increasing his general wisdom and thereby fitting him to work out his own design for living. In the opinion of the writer, everything that we offer in the secondary-school curriculum today has a value in the opportunity which it offers some of the pupils for intellectual development. But the thesis of this discussion so far is that the problem of adjustment demands that something be added to the curriculum.

GENERAL ORGANIZATION

In harmony with this thesis the Wisconsin High School experimental curriculum is organized upon the basis of two emphases: one upon intellectual development, and the other upon adjustment. It is obvious that this distinction must be one of emphasis, since no sharp line of distinction can be drawn between them. Human methods of adjustment involve intellectual procedure, and intellectual development does promote the individual's ability to adjust himself to the world. Since these two problems are distinguishable, and are of coördinate importance, about half the pupil's time is devoted to each.

The program for intellectual development is made up of electives from the regular curriculum of the school, one or two or three in number as the pupil desires. The number of electives increases from year to year so

that the typical number for the senior year is three. Each of these consumes five clock hours a week. With these subjects, pursued regularly in school, belong the independent reading and studying which the pupil does as a result of interest generated by his school experiences.

The adjustment program is made up of four constants: education for community living, education for health, education for the use of leisure, education for vocation and for college life. The health and community living constants consume two or three clock hours per week in the sophomore and junior years, depending upon program complexities. In the senior year health meets two hours per week, and community living one. Vocation and college life meet one hour a week throughout the three years. The leisure-time constant is irregular, its time schedule varying with the kind of work being done and with the schedules of the persons who conduct it. In this constant are included two hours a week, in the tenth and eleventh grades, under a teacher of English.

Two facts should be noted at this point: first, the selection of the content of each of these constants is in no way bound by existing subject-matter lines; furthermore, no subject-matter division is conceded any rights of its own which would entitle it to be included. In other words, the teacher who plans one of these constants is free to forage wherever he likes in setting up and in solving the problems which make up the course. He includes what seems essential to the problem and only what seems essential. These are therefore functional courses, and are to be distinguished from integrated or correlated courses in which one attempts to take two things already existing in definite form and put them together in the interest of unity and efficiency. Where the integrated course is made by pouring in ingredients, the functional course, of which these constants are illustrations, is made by reaching out from central headquarters occupied by problems.

Second, these constants are so broad and inclusive that, as even the best of teachers are now trained, no one teacher is quite equal to adequate leadership in any one of the constants. It is therefore necessary for the teacher in charge, in conducting the instruction, to invoke the aid of other teachers and even of persons outside the faculty. The question whether this fact invalidates the plan for general use is, the writer believes, to be answered in the negative. It does, however, imply a definite change in teacher training.

ILLUSTRATIONS OF CONTENT

An account of the details of the work would be too long for these pages. The reader will probably be interested, however, in a brief list of topics for each of the constants. Those given below represent the organization of the constants for the tenth-grade group in the year 1934-1935.

CONSTANT I. EDUCATION FOR HEALTH

NOTE: Through study of a number of scientific investigations, our Miss Lynda Weber has compiled a set of principles, understandings, habits, attitudes, ideals, etc., which seem to be essential to the equipment of any one who expects to look after his health intelligently. This compilation Miss Weber and Mr. Harold G. McMullen use, in conducting the course, as a kind of general check list. It is their intention to see that all of these items are taught within the three years of the course. The order in which the topics come is a matter of opportunism and circumstance. For example, when the pupils return to school after the summer's comparative irresponsibility and freedom from routine, the change to a regular program of study calls for certain health considerations. Epidemics, seasonal changes, accidents, and so on serve as highly motivated introductions to these topics in perhaps random order. Thus the course is systematic without ignoring the current health questions which pupils have in mind.

Unit I. Adjustment to the School Program

1. Mental activity: correct habits of study; correct environment for study; time and energy requirements; mental hygiene

2. Physical activity: purposes and value of exercise; importance of physical education and athletics in the school program; hygiene

3. Rest and sleep: nature of sleep; amount required; conditions conducive to sleep

Unit II. The Importance of Posture; The Maintenance of Correct Posture

1. Natural body adaptation for locomotion and general mobility
2. Natural curves of the human body
3. Effects of good posture
4. Specific hygienic regulations
5. First aid

Unit III. How Life Goes On

1. Nature of reproduction: one-celled organisms; colonial forms; higher forms of plants; human beings
2. Effect on the human body of the development of the sex organs
3. The importance of healthful development of physical, mental, and emotional aspects during adolescence: necessity of hygienic living; qualities to be developed; confidence in parents, teachers, and older friends; wholesome companionship with friends of the same age and of both sexes
4. Preparation for and the meaning of family life

Unit IV. Warding Off Infection

1. Skin infections and irritations: natural defense adaptations of skin; care of skin; environmental cleanliness

CONSTANT II. EDUCATION FOR COMMUNITY LIVING

NOTE: The chairman of the constant, Mr. Burr W. Phillips, emphasizes two purposes:

1. Keeping abreast of important current affairs and developing the best possible understanding of them
2. An understanding of as many as possible of the major social problems of the time. Wherever it is essential the historical background is studied. The purpose of the historical allusions is a better understanding of the current problems

Unit I. An Orientation Unit

PURPOSE: To motivate the work for the rest of the course by developing an interest in current affairs. To acquaint the pupils with the materials to be used, especially to develop a systematic use of the American Observer, and the habit of following the newspapers and radio intelligently.

Some of the problems studied are: crime in the United States; Nazi Germany; Wisconsin politics; the NRA; the President's speeches; labor troubles, especially at Kohler, Wisconsin; problems in comparative government, such as Great Britain and the United States, France and the United States, France and Great Britain; the American Federation of Labor; radical, conservative, and liberal points of views; work relief versus direct relief; French politics.

Unit II. T.V.A.

1. General problems: private versus government control of power; the land and people of Tennessee Valley; soil erosion; dam construction; marginal lands; statistic farming; reforestation; nitrates and national defense; Supreme Court decisions
2. Additional problems from current affairs: the November election—State and national; the Naval Conference; crime in the United States (continued); the President's messages to Congress; Saar Plebiscite; the Hauptmann trial; the United States and the World Court; the Supreme Court and the Gold Clause decision; Huey Long; Father Coughlin and Dr. Townsend

Unit III. Public Opinion

1. General problems: importance of public opinion; the newspapers; cartoons; radio; movies; education and public opinion; importance of leadership
2. Additional problems from current affairs: Gold Clause decision (continued); German rearmament; Italy and Abyssinia

Unit IV. The Causes of War

NOTE: This unit grew out of a discussion of the vast amount of war costs in the press today, German rearmament, Italy and Abyssinia, Japan and China, etc. Then the question: "How wars have come in the past" led to a survey of the nineteenth- and twentieth-century background of the World War. Finally an extensive examination was made of the current world situation to see if the world has learned its lesson since the World War. One or two days a week were devoted to lecture discussions in which the instructor surveyed with the group the chief political, economic, social, national, and international developments in the principal European countries during the last century and a half with emphasis upon development since 1870 and again since 1918. The pupils took notes and there was considerable discussion. Problems arising from current affairs were: socialized medicine; the Stresa Conference; holding companies; intolerance on the Wisconsin campus; government changes in England and France; present political trends in the United States; the Supreme Court and the NRA.

CONSTANT III. EDUCATION FOR THE USE OF LEISURE

Unit I. Fall Sports

Being an intelligent spectator at a football game, Coach Russell Rippe; the elements of tennis, Coach Russell Rippe and assistants from the University department of physical education

Unit II. Il Trovatore

The music, Mrs. Helen Rector; the story, Miss Jean Hoard; the stage, Mr. Wayne Claxton; the

costumes, Mrs. Julia Nofsker; characterizations of the cast, Mr. Lowell Lees

Unit III. Excursions into the World of Music, Drama, and Literature

Dr. Gladys Borchers, Miss Jean Hoard, and Dr. Lowell Lees led the group from the highly dramatic and colorful opera outward to kinds of drama and literature in which the treatment is less obvious, less intense, and more subtle, with the purpose of projecting the high motivation of the opera into music and literature in general.

Minor units growing out of these interests but introduced somewhat later in the year were the following:

1. Music: a special request radio broadcast program for the group over the State station WHA; the present individual musical interests of the members of the group; a trip to radio hall to hear a pipe-organ concert, to study the mechanics of the organ, and to observe how sound effects are made for radio broadcast; the making of simple, musical instruments to illustrate the principle of the pipe organ—willow whistle and glassophone; library reading period—using musical magazines and books and followed by brief written résumé of material read; group singing and victrola records (Mrs. Helen Rector)

2. Elements of art structure as illustrated by clothing: men's and women's clothing was brought to the classroom from some of the better local shops. Illustrations of the fundamentals and principles of art composition were pointed out as criteria in the selection of clothing. Practice in color combinations was acquired through the use of about two hundred samples of colored materials and colored paper. A scrapbook of articles and illustrations accompanied this work (Mr. Wayne Claxton)

3. Literature: opera—*Carmen*, *Pinafore*, and *Robin Hood*; poetry—English, Scotch, and French ballads and early American cowboy and sailor ballads, lyric poetry, narrative poetry; the epic, poetry patterns, rhythms, and meter were taught incidentally, with a laboratory period for poetry writing. Play reading—library reading of five contemporary plays; writing dramatic narratives (Miss Jean Hoard)

4. Dramatics: library readings were conducted, first of highly dramatic material, then of plays in which the reader found it necessary more and more to supply the dramatic element, and then of general literature of pronounced dramatic possibilities (Dr. Gladys Borchers)

Unit IV. Know Your Automobile

The divisions of the automobile: body, chassis, power plant, transmission, and suspension; conversion of chemical energy into electrical energy

(battery); the four-stroke cycle; conversion of mechanical energy into electrical energy; the manufacture of gasoline and oil (Mr. Harold G. McMullen); body design and construction (Mrs. Julia Nofsker); motion picture on body design and construction; rules of the road; touring ("Mac" of the *Wisconsin State Journal*); plans and equipment for vacations (Mr. R. A. Hinderman)

CONSTANT IV. EDUCATION FOR VOCATION AND COLLEGE LIFE

Unit I. Merchandising

Department stores, hotels, and inns: visits to the hotels and department stores; reports on special investigations, etc. (Mr. R. A. Hinderman)

Unit II. Natural Resources—Farming

The relation of the individual consumer to various forms of employment: farming, meat packing, canning, dairying, baking, and mining; reports to the class by invited authorities; visits to meat-packing plant, dairies, Forest Products Laboratory, etc.

Unit III. Colleges and Universities

The problem of choosing a college: pupils reported on the colleges and universities in which they were interested

Profession: medicine (special reports and visit to a hospital); engineering; law; music; interior decoration; accounting

Unit IV. Communication, Transportation, Industry

Brief historical sketches of the industries, emphasizing the economic and personnel factors

SUPPLEMENTARY MEASURES

1. English Composition (Miss Jean Hoard). In connection with the composition problems of all subjects, constants, and electives, there were both specific corrective work and general constructive treatment. The latter included:

- a) Oral composition
- b) Use of source materials
- c) Outline making
- d) Note taking
- e) Organization of materials

2. Development of Interests in Independent Reading (Miss Jean Hoard). The short story; biography; familiar humorous essays; two Shakespearean plays—*As You Like It* and *The Merchant of Venice*; *Silas Marner*; reports by pupils on their outside reading; distribution of mimeographed reading list of three hundred twelve titles as a summer reading suggestion

ELEVENTH GRADE

As indicated above, these illustrations are from the program of the tenth-grade group for the year 1934-1935. The reader will be interested in a few miscellaneous items from the work of the eleventh-grade group for the same year.

1. Latin (Miss Calla Guyles). The members of the group who were studying Latin met three times a week and followed a curriculum quite different from the traditional third-year Latin course.

- a) Readings from *Ad Alpes* (Nutting)
- b) A brief study of grammar and vocabulary
- c) Reports from Latin reading on such topics as:

- (1) Civic history of Rome
- (2) Graft and greed in Rome
- (3) War
- (4) Religion
- (5) Superstitions
- (6) Politics
- (7) Justice
- (8) Peace

- d) Sources were:

- (1) Wedeck, *Third Year Latin*
- (2) Kelsey and Meinecke, *Third Year Latin*
- (3) Ullman, Henry, White, *Third Year Latin*

- e) A period of laboratory prose and translation into Latin

- f) An intensive class study of Cicero's *Oration I Against Catiline*

- (1) Brief reports on places and persons mentioned
- (2) Discussion of political and ethical points involved
- (3) Correlation with present-day conditions

- g) Selections from Sallust

- h) Unprepared sight translations of *Oration III Against Catiline*

- i) Each pupil prepared a discussion on a major topic, for which he got his information by reading Latin material. Some of these topics were:

- (1) Roman medicine
- (2) The Roman forum
- (3) Etymology
- (4) Roman architecture
- (5) Roman dress
- (6) Personal ornaments
- (7) Roman roads
- (8) Social order of Rome
- (9) Character and background of *Catiline*
- (10) The life of Cicero

- j) At the end of the year a period of two months was spent in the translation of

Ovid's *Metamorphoses* and in a summary of the structure of the Latin language

2. French (Miss Laura Johnson). As in Latin, these French pupils met three times a week. They spent the majority of their time on up-to-date material. The course was conducted less as a literature course and more as a course in the reading of current material. The year began with a collection of articles by living Frenchmen in all fields of activities, and had as one of its objectives the setting up of an understanding of traits peculiar to the French temperament, traditions, ideals, education, etc. They read a weekly French newspaper and four weekly or monthly French magazines. Each pupil chose a topic as his field of major interest for the year and kept a scrapbook in which he collected pertinent items from his readings in both French and English. Among the topics chosen were:

- a) Travel
- b) Business
- c) Science
- d) Art
- e) French traditions
- f) Politics

NOTE: From the two paragraphs above it is evident that we are thinking of the foreign language of the third year as belonging in the social-science group. The emphasis has been in each language upon problems of community living; the emphasis has been upon reading for understanding of racial point of view, and for a basis for international harmony.

3. Leisure (Miss Rita Springhorn). The eleventh-grade group prepared a large travel book, covering points of interest in the western part of this country, the routes by which they may be reached, and hotel and other lodging accommodations. Each pupil took one region and studied carefully its history, its geography, and its natural science and prepared a report upon it. From these there were six radio broadcasts over WHA.

4. Statistics. The class made a six-week study of elementary statistics under the supervision of Professor Curtis Merriman of the department of education. The purpose of this unit was a better understanding of mass facts.

No attempt will be made here to evaluate results. That is a question for a later time. On the other hand it may be of some comfort to others who are trying new things to know that we are encountering every kind of difficulty that is the traditional lot of the

pioneer. The mind-set of parents and pupils is naturally unfavorable to this type of procedure. Each experimental group is composed of about twenty college-type pupils, who run for the most part from I.Q. 110 up. These pupils have more intellectual interests than the noncollege type and are therefore more content with the old type of curriculum than the noncollege type would be; they therefore enter into the plan with less enthusiasm than a group would whose I.Q. ranged from 110 downward. The coöperation of the parents has been excellent, and that of the pupils has been almost as good, in spite of their natural cynicism with regard

to any marked departure from the traditional plan. The generous and wholehearted industry of the faculty has been most comforting and inspiring.

Our greatest problem now is that of collecting evidence to show whether these pupils are becoming capable of better adjustment to the environment which we call the world. We can easily determine how much algebra they know and how good their standards of English usage are. It is easy to test the knowledge gained in the elective curriculum. But the kind of result which our new adjustment is expected to achieve we are least able to measure.

Editorials

WE SOLEMNLY SWEAR

Alice was just beginning to say "There's a mistake somewhere—" when the Queen began screaming, so loud that she had to leave the sentence unfinished. "Oh, oh, oh!" shouted the Queen, shaking her hand about as if she wanted to shake it off. "My finger's bleeding! Oh, oh, oh, oh!"

Her screams were so exactly like the whistle of a steam engine, that Alice had to hold both her hands over her ears.

"What is the matter?" she said, as soon as there was a chance of making herself heard. "Have you pricked your finger?"

"I haven't pricked it yet," the Queen said, "but I soon shall—oh, oh, oh!"

And something rather like that is happening in our own Wonderland where so many good people are distressed about the pain the teachers' oath of allegiance is going to cause them.

The teachers' oath, in every State and every local district where such a thing is required, is itself of a nightmare quality, wholly unreal in a world that has microscopes, rotary printing presses, vitamins, and color photography. It is a track left by the Old Man of the Sea, a living sign of the dead past that never dies. It is frightening because we remember in our bones the rigors of the rack and thumbscrew and other mechanical triumphs of the day before yesterday when loyalty oaths were in style. It is a good thing when our bones become

barometers to predict an approaching storm. Our democratic institutions would be more secure, perhaps, if we were somewhat more sensitive to the subtler invasions of the man with the thumbscrew. A lay critic of our profession finds that we did not say "Oh, oh, oh!" soon enough; Dorothy Dunbar Bromley, writing for the Scripps-Howard *New York World-Telegram* (November 29, 1935), gave this vigorous diagnosis and prescription:

If the teachers of the country would talk to the legislators for a change, instead of talking to themselves, their heated protests re the loyalty oath might have some effect. Where, for instance, were the educators of this State when the light went out and the trouble-brewers at Albany passed the loyalty bill described the other day at the New York State Teachers' Association as "the height of folly"?

The sad truth is that the teachers remained asleep at the switch while they were robbed of their inalienable rights as citizens, and insulted as members of a great profession. Perhaps you'll say offhand that teachers shouldn't quibble over swearing allegiance to the constitutions of the United States and the State of New York. Still you wouldn't suggest, I feel sure, that Charles Beard, a former professor at Columbia University, was a disloyal American when he put on his critical spectacles in 1912 and picked the Constitution to pieces in his *Economic Interpretation* of that document. There were plenty who thought he was a heretic then, but he has lived to be called this country's no. 1 historian.

If the test of loyalty is accepting the Constitution, the whole Constitution, and nothing but the Constitution, then a lot of us are renegade patriots, including the great majority of Americans who deplored the Eighteenth Amendment, as well as a good many of us who hold that the Fourteenth Amendment has been used to salvage property rights at the expense of human rights.

"TEACHERS MUST BE FREE"

Apparently, though, it's still all right for anybody who's not a pedagogue to look at the Constitution with a microscope. This seems to me a very bad arrangement, for if we muzzle our teachers we'll put this land of the Pilgrim's pride in a class with Fascist Italy and Nazi Germany.

So I second the motion of Dr. Arvie Eldred, secretary of the house of delegates of the New York Teachers' Association, who said, "Teachers must be free as individuals, to exercise their inalienable rights and, as professional people, they possess the right to teach the facts as they appear."

If they are deprived of this right, "An assault on freedom is made," to quote Dr. Isaiah Bowman, president of Johns Hopkins University, and we witness "the debasement of democratic idealism."

Up at Harvard this fall a group of teachers did not care to be debased, and so they prayed to be excused from taking the Massachusetts loyalty oath. But they were spanked and put to bed by President Conant, who was loath to see fair Harvard run amuck with the law. That was his error, in my humble opinion, for if there is any university in the country that could afford to make a test case of the constitutionality of the teachers' loyalty oath it is Harvard, with its rich endowment back of it and an American tradition that is twice as old as the Federal Government itself.

SINCERITY CALLED FOR

Traditions of the right kind are worth preserving, and it seems to me that with democracy reaching the vanishing point on the continent of Europe the American tradition of freedom ought to be spared such an overdose of pragmatism as it is getting from Harvard and the faculties of other colleges and schools in the twenty-one States where loyalty bills have been passed.

These bills have been roundly condemned by the teachers, but still they have knuckled under. Instead of taking the oath *pro forma* with tongue in cheek, the teachers, it seems to this column, ought to strike in a body. If both public-school and collegiate teachers were to walk out from their classrooms in defense of free speech the legislators might get an inkling of what true Americanism is.

So long as the teachers keep on jabberwalking—saying they believe one thing and doing another—they are aiding and abetting intolerance.

NEW YEAR'S COMES BUT TWICE A YEAR

For the chronic optimists New Year's is the occasion for high resolves, new aspirations, and a "shot in the arm." For the old folks—all of us over thirty—it is likely to be a season when, if we take time to consider at all, we find ourselves up to our ears in remorse and self-reproach. So many things begun brightly have ended in the mud, or have fizzled into sad vapors! It is convenient, we find, to be so preoccupied with our routine—our statistics, schedules, and syllabi—that we escape the necessity of taking stock at the first of the calendar year.

After all, it is not the first of our year. Our year begins in September. January first is for us nothing more than the last day of the Christmas vacation period, the beginning of an intensive period of coaching and cramming for the hurdles that mark the midterm. September is our time for resolutions, new term resolutions; even July, when we are sorting out the sheep and the goats, is more seasonal for promises and plans and penance than January first.

Therefore, we shall withhold the conventional greeting. We shall have it on ice until next September. The time is not far off, some one was saying, when our schools will all be on a twelve-month schedule. It will be possible then, perhaps, to consider January first as the opening day of school, and we shall be in step with the world. But the all-year school, let us hope, will not hold such unhappy prospects as those realized by the eighth-grade youngster whose letter to his teacher we have secured permission to reprint:

WORDS WITHOUT A SONG—BY A BOY IN SUMMER SCHOOL

Dear Miss Haupt,

Do you think I know my grammar good enough to pass in summer school. I have been trying plenty hard but it sure makes me mad when I have to come in the house and do my night work when the rest of the kids are just getting ready to Play. Sometimes I just think I could die or go nuts and wish I would die by morning but it seems when I get up I am always alive instead of being

a spiret. Before school left out I used to think how nice it would be to sleep until about 11.00 in the morning but then when my teacher said I could go to summer school I could have killed her, because I did my best most of the time and only got three Ds while the very boy behind me got four and passed. I think its awful to have to go to school on Saturday and then get up at the same time on Sunday and go to Sunday school and then church and come home and eat my dinner and have company to stay in the hot house with.

But still I am learning how to write better and learning Arithmetic and grammer pretty well.

I don't think I would be here if I had not had to go to the hospital at the end of the term and lose out on all the exams. Just how would you like to go to work every day except Sunday and not get paid for it. School is allright but nearly 10 months is about all anybody can stand.

I remember one day I went to school and my teacher said I had been playing hookee when she knowed I didn't and I told her she was just telling a lie so she told Mr. Bowman and he gave me a spanking then when I got hom I went to my room and had to stay there the rest of the night.

Yours truly,

George McCarthy

P.S. I like grammer since I came here. And I wish they would move this school away from that swimming pool.

It was George's good fortune to have a teacher not insensible to the heat, the distraction offered by the swimming pool, and the gross injustices which George had endured so stoically. We are happy to report that he not only passed his "grammer," but his masterpiece, printed above verbatim, was given the fine big "A" it deserved. Next summer will bring forth another crop of boys and girls who could kill their teachers when they announce the names of those who will go to summer school six days a week without even the small respite that Sunday without Sunday school and church and company might provide. It will be pretty awful, and sometimes they will wish they could die or "go nuts."

SCIENCE FAIR

A bulletin from the New Jersey State Department of Agriculture announces that the 1936 New Jersey Science Fair will be held under the joint auspices of that department and the State Department of Public Instruc-

tion. The week of January 28-February 1 has been set for the fair, which will be held at the Second Regiment Armory in Trenton, New Jersey. Exhibits will be classified for the purpose of judging into eight general fields: (1) conservation; (2) health in relation to animals, plants, and farm products; (3) the physical geography of New Jersey; (4) agricultural physics and chemistry; (5) agriculture—production of crops and livestock in New Jersey; (6) agriculture—marketing of crops and livestock in New Jersey; (7) the biology of plants and animals; (8) mechanics.

ANNIVERSARY

THE CLEARING HOUSE, a little tardily but with compensating good will, takes this occasion to congratulate Silver, Burdett and Company, textbook publishers, on the occasion of the golden anniversary of the establishment of the company. In the fifty years since 1885 the preparation of textbooks has made striking advances, and not a little of this progress is due to the discriminating work of the editors and authors of the books which bear the Silver-Burdett label.

A recent letter from the headquarters of the concern (39 Division Street, Newark, New Jersey) bears the following interesting announcement:

As a feature of its commemoration of fifty years of publishing school and college textbooks and with the thought of giving—and in some measure with the thought of memorializing—the type of interest and purpose so clearly exemplified by the policies of its founder, the company has commissioned the internationally known painter, N. C. Wyeth, to create a symbolic mural painting entitled "The Spirit of Education." The canvas shows a majestic figure, a goddess of hope and inspiration, leading a phalanx of children through the educational eras from the first Colonial schools to the present day. In the brilliant and appealing style of the artist, the background reveals the historic transformation of America from the primeval forest to the stacks and skyscrapers of our modern industrial cities. A reproduction of this mural in six colors will be prepared and, upon request, will be sent to schools and educators who may be interested in this conception, both as an artistic decoration and as a subject of contemplation when present-day confusion and contradictions beset the planning of educators and challenge their action.

Material Review

EDUCATIONAL DEVICES, ORAL AND AURAL

For a period of a little over two months it has been our privilege to experiment informally with some of the more obvious uses of the Dictaphone in the classroom. A great many things remain to be tested more thoroughly, but what we have accomplished substantiates our notion of the possibilities of the machine and justifies a brief discussion of these in this department.

Before some one else says it, let me say that this review is no brief for mechanizing education. It is not a part of the movement to dismiss many teachers and substitute one great master teacher who may, from his microphone, teach square root to five thousand or five million robotized pupils. Our uses for the Dictaphone are based on other educational values entirely.

In the penny arcades of the honky-tonk section of your city you will find, I think, at least one of those first phonographs, wonder of a generation that was, in the field of mechanical invention, just cutting its eye teeth. This venerable phonograph, if you find one, will be harnessed to a penny-trap. It offers to serve you through a slim, forked rubber tube quite similar to the one on a physician's stethoscope. When the nozzles are in your ears a coin dropped into the slot will permit you to hear a sample of the first canned music. It is music that only an inventor could love. When the other Roosevelt was charging up San Juan Hill, Americans allowed themselves to believe that the sounds this machine made were faithful reproductions of faithfully recorded music. But no music ever sounded like this—no music, except, maybe, the first rehearsal of an amateur Chinese orchestra.

That was the first phonograph, the remote ancestor of the modern phonograph and its modern cousin, the efficient, streamlined, black and chromium Dictaphone. The Dictaphone has evolved to meet the special needs of the highly organized business office. Using the dictating unit, the efficient executive, by speaking into the mouth-piece, records on a rotating wax cylinder his directions to his typist, the contents of letters to be written, and memoranda of various kinds for himself and his associates. The typist—who is not necessarily a stenographer and need have no knowledge whatever of stenography—takes the wax record filled with dictation and, using the transcribing unit, listens with the "stethoscope" gadget, and writes the letters or carries out the other instructions. One typist in an office equipped with these machines can serve four or five persons.

The cost of Dictaphone machines, or other machines available for this type of service, is generally considered too high to permit the purchase of such equipment for a school office. Assuredly, such equipment would save a principal's time and increase his efficiency, if they were intelligently employed; but the business men who make up most boards of education set no great value on a school administrator's time and measure his efficiency by other standards than they would require in a business office. *Ergo*, it is precious few schools where Dictaphone machines are available.

The person who invents a machine is only one of its inventors; there is as much ingenuity required to sell it as to devise it. In common with other progressive industries, the manufacturers and distributors of the Dictaphone machines have lately maintained a staff to develop through research and promotion new and better uses for their products. One aspect of this research program has considered the possible uses of the dictaphone in the educational field. I mention this only in passing, as the educational uses the company has explored represent a somewhat different tack than the ones we have been experimenting with at Edgemont School.¹

When the Dictaphone company delivered to Edgemont School a set of new machines—dictating unit, transcribing unit, and record shaver—we were prepared to test out some vague theories we had concocted concerning the advantages of such equipment in schools. It is common practice in progressive schools for teachers in the lower grades to write down stories as their pupils dictate them, and to use these stories, polished up in spots, as material for reading lessons. The practice seems to have excellent sanctions. But what it offers for us is the suggestion that composition, at almost every stage of the individual's development, is limited or impeded by the skill he has attained in such wholly mechanical matters as writing, spelling, and punctuating. That is, creative experience in writing is valuable not on account of the mechanics involved but in spite of these, and a good composition represents a creative experience, no matter whether it was dictated, scribbled, scrawled, or ticked out laboriously on the typewriter. We had evidence that even in the

¹Information concerning the cost of Dictaphone machines and the several educational services the company has developed may be secured by writing to Mr. Ovington, Educational Division, Dictaphone Sales Corporation, 420 Lexington Avenue, New York, N.Y.

secondary grades, there are many students who have more good things to tell than ever get written, mainly on account of the work of getting them written.

Our experiments along this line have been too superficial to prove anything unless it is that somebody ought to take time to go into this matter more thoroughly. The Dictaphone offers the mechanical shortcut. Students respond eagerly to the invitation to *talk* a composition when they would be bored by the prospect of writing it. Here is a new medium, fresh and challenging. It is no panacea, of course—there is, for instance, the problem of getting the material transcribed, that is, typewritten, once it has been dictated. But it is only the exceptional composition that should be transcribed, perhaps one out of a dozen. The others the class may listen to and criticize; they will be practice compositions. Their importance is in the fact that they provide both stimulation and discipline for the students who dictate.

It was not an important part of our plan to use the Dictaphone as a medium for calling attention to voice and speech defects; but these were so obvious to the students when their records were played back that, automatically or spontaneously, there was a general desire to speak more effectively. And this "felt need" we could not very well neglect, so we gave some time to analysis of common speech defects.

Related to this was the matter of what we might call "forensic" effect. The Dictaphone machine was used by some students to rehearse their "oral compositions" for English or social-studies classes, or their speeches before the school forum or assembly. Mr. Public Speaker was pleased to hear his talk, when he recorded it and played it back, as it might sound to his audience. He could easily understand where it needed more variety of tone, or more emphasis, or more or less of some other quality that would influence its effectiveness. The evidence when the record was played back was objective and impersonal; the student could hear for himself defects in his manner of speaking which the teacher or a classmate could not have pointed out convincingly without the aid of the machine.

It is obvious that the Dictaphone will have special value in the commercial department of the high school. For one thing, it will be a nearly

perfect way to give students practice of a special kind in talking on the telephone. "Telephone technique" is an achievement, and one who talks into the mouthpiece of the Dictaphone, then hears his own voice almost exactly as it would sound to a person at the other end of the telephone wire, should be materially aided in achieving a "voice with a smile" and the other qualities desirable in telephoning. The way to learn to telephone is to telephone; but a telephone conversation is a composition, an oral composition, with elements of art and science. Practice on the Dictaphone, not just for commercial students but for all students, since all of them will use telephones, is an excellent kind of rehearsal.

There will not be space in this review to mention what we have done with the Dictaphone in experiments in group composition. It is enough to mention here that composition is not inevitably an individual performance, and there are certain occasions when pooling brains and skill and interest brings about an interesting result with excellent concomitants. The composition is built up, by general consent, a sentence at a time. Each sentence, when it has been refined, reformed, recast, is dictated into the machine to be transcribed later. This use of the Dictaphone is especially successful when the composition projected is to be done in the dramatic form. You, George, you are taking the part of the captain now. What do you think you'd really say when the servant comes in and announces that the police have discovered the missing wallet but that the papers are gone?

To conclude, it is important to note that children's voices do not record well, as a rule. High-school students, however, have usually got enough *timbre* in their voices to make some kind of a record and some of the baritones will turn out for you a recording as good as the best.

You will be thoroughly disappointed if you try to record music—vocal music or instrumental. The Dictaphone does very well with the frequencies of the speaking voice, but it flattens out all the fine quality of a musical recording, and what you have sounds like nothing on earth, unless it is the aforementioned Chinese orchestra. But there are some uses you can make of the Dictaphone in recording radio addresses—I shall save this matter for the special radio issue of *THE CLEARING HOUSE*.
J. C. D.

Book Reviews

Philip W. L. Cox, *Review Editor*

Social Language, by ROBERT WENDELL FREDERICK AND VIRGINIA BOSWELL SMITH. New York: The Inor Publishing Company, 1935, 203 pages.

As stated in the introduction *Social Language* is designed to form the introductory or basic language course in the junior high school. It is exploratory in nature; its function is to guide pupils toward or away from the further study of foreign language in their later high-school years; its arrangement is flexible; its approach is through pupil activity; it is a splendid attempt to give to all junior-high-school pupils a broad view of the nature and importance of language and to those who will continue a partial insight into the scope of future language courses.

The book is divided into two parts. Part I presents in eight definite units many facts and ideas about language in general in a very interesting manner. Among the topics considered are: dialects, the alphabet, language games, speech handicaps, the voice machine, birth and growth of lan-

guage, a world language, good taste in language. A primary objective of Part I seems to be the cultivation of a desire on the part of pupils to speak clearly, concisely, and in good taste at all times and in all places.

Part II introduces the pupil, by means of seven units of work, to the differences in the pronunciation of words in the several foreign languages taught in high schools and the changes which take place when different forms of nouns and verbs are spelled. A few simple stories in a foreign language are introduced for reading purposes and to give an idea of what the work of translation from one language into another really is. The last chapter asks the pupil to consider the question, "Should I study a language?" from the standpoint of his probable life experiences, his desire to enter college, and his possible future career. A carefully selected list of readings for the purpose of familiarizing pupils with the life, manners, and customs of other peoples than ours concludes the book.

Social Language is a textbook written for the

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use of immature boys and girls. Its language is simple, its narrative fascinating. It will undoubtedly furnish a valuable guide for a course in exploratory language, a type of course in keeping with the following objectives of junior-high-school education: (1) The junior high school is a broadening and finding school and endeavors to discover the interests and abilities of its pupils to the end that they may be guided into those later undertakings which will prepare them to contribute to the progress of the social whole. (2) The junior high school endeavors to develop an appreciation for the finest and most fundamental things in life. One of those things is a spoken and written language through which peoples may know and understand each other in order that they may help their fellows live fuller and richer lives.

H. H. VAN COTT

Problems of Your Democracy, A Student's Work-Outline for Social Studies Courses, by HUGH JOHNSTON. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1935, viii + 35 pages, \$36.

"You are a citizen of a great country," says the preface to the student. "You should be proud and thankful for the rich heritage that you have received. Citizenship carries with it responsibilities;

that is why such a course as this is taught in our schools."

The outline is planned for a full year's work divided into five sections: Preliminary Background; Essentials of Government; Broader Political Problems; Economic Problems; and Social Problems. Each section consists of several units; each unit contains a preview and an outline with references to an up-to-date bibliography. The procedures for the student to follow are clearly set forth in the preface.

Economic Citizenship, by WAYNE W. SOPER. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1934, xii + 317 pages, \$1.20.

"Good citizenship," says the author, "involves more than obedience to laws, patriotism, and national pride. It may be said that every act performed by a person has some bearing upon the quality of citizenship he possesses." He has, therefore, prepared a text in which the preparation for the business of living, the management of this business, and the strivings for economic independence are studied from the points of view of citizenship. It is, indeed, a much needed reorientation of civics.

Each chapter opens with an appropriate quotation, and with a list of problems to be considered.

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At the close of each chapter is a summary list of topics, references, problems to challenge the student's thinking, and a completion test by which they may measure their achievements.

Except for two brief paragraphs (pp. 191-192) on the effect of the depression on installment buying, there is little evidence that the economic citizen has any lesson to learn from the present long continuing economic impasse.

The Transitional Public School, by CYRUS D. MEAD AND FRED W. ORTH. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1934, 371 pages, \$2.25.

Their main theme, say the authors in the preface, is an attempt to reconcile and harmonize and mediate the subject-centered public school and the "child-centered" activity experimental school; to make concrete not "how to do," but "how it has already been done."

The recital of the adventures involved in progressive-school practices may make the scornors of "soft pedagogy" snort with disgust. But it serves as an interesting and challenging exposition of what the school influx is trying to do.

Whether or not the term "transitional" in the title is justified time alone will tell. Certainly there is little evidence to be found in the examples cited

by the authors to indicate that the school has any other social direction than that of being expressive and that of respect for the individual. If the school has any positive mission in our confused world, the school teachers and professors of method seldom seem conscious of it. The reviewer believes that there are more significant practices in the transitional school than the authors of this book have found.

Character in the Making, An Introduction to the Theory of Character Education, by PAUL F. VOELKER. Milwaukee-Lansing: E. M. Hale Company, 1934, 160 pages.

"Human character is essentially a dynamic phenomenon. It is the energy, kinetic, and potential, which produces human behavior." These opening sentences of Paul Voelker's first chapter, entitled *Wishes*, furnish a key to his conception of the problem of character education. His other chapters follow naturally: Values; Emotions; Ideas; Structures; Ideals; Conflicts; Discriminations; Choice; Attitudes; Expression; Environment; and Integration. He furnishes a remarkable straightforward and convincing basis which all successful programs of character guidance must follow.

Character may be studied piecemeal; it may be described as a total of unit traits; it may be

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BOOK TWO (Second Year of Junior High School) 424 pp.....List, \$0.92
BOOK THREE (In preparation)

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assessed as though it were a status. But it is futile to deal with it except as an ongoing complex. Only as youths (and adults) are helped to set up objectives that are for them dynamic, reasonable, and worth while and are helped so far as possible to achieve these objectives can they resolve their conflicting desires and values, structures and choices, successfully. And such resolution is not a static nor an intellectual condition; it is itself activity—a successful and satisfying and socially desirable expression of attitudes to environment through behaviors that are themselves the automatic or unforced adjustments of true integration of personality.

Teachers and Teaching, by Ten Thousand High-School Seniors. Collected, compiled, and analyzed by FRANK W. HART. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1934, 285 pages, \$1.50.

"These high-school senior boys and girls were in dead earnest. Apparently the filling out of this blank was not accepted as a common-place task of answering just another questionnaire. It was an opportunity—an opportunity to express, in confidence and with a hope of service, something that their experience, bitter or sweet, had taught them—something that had been throbbing within them for a long time. Their writing was spontaneous, but their thinking was not." So comments Dr. Hart with apparent naïvete, concerning the returns on his questionnaire asking for descriptions of best liked, least liked, and best teachers. What parent who really knows his adolescent children and their friends could not have told Dr. Hart, what many teachers never learn, that high-school seniors are eager to deal vigorously with reality.

Chapter II quotes five hundred of the stronger statements concerning Teacher A, the best liked, and they are very interesting reading. Chapter IV paints a composite picture of this teacher. Helpfulness, cheerfulness, friendliness, understanding, interesting, strict, impartial, never cross or sarcastic, these are the eight characteristics of best liked teachers most frequently mentioned.

Chapters IV and V perform the same services for poor Teacher Z who is cross and loses his temper, who is not helpful, who is partial, "snooty," "hard-boiled," unfair, inconsiderate, lacks understanding, and is unreasonable—in order of frequency. Chapters VI and VII deal with Teacher H, the best teacher (in those cases where neither Teacher A nor Teacher Z was considered best). Teacher H is exacting, explains and plans his lessons competently, knows his subject, a rigid disciplinarian, makes the work interesting; but is less

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friendly, more businesslike, and less interested in pupils than Teacher A.

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"We Can Take It," A Story of the C.C.C., by RAY HOYT. New York: American Book Company, 1935, 128 pages.

Throughout the western world youth is obliged to make radical readjustments to a civilization that is changing so rapidly that few if any adults or youths know what is taking place or what will come of it. Meantime, many youths have no true work, no call to serve or participate in the realities of life, no jobs. They seek substitutes lest they perish—for vigorous activity is essential to their spiritual and physical lives. The Civilian Conservation Corps is by far the most generously conceived substitute for reality that American society has developed.

This attractive little book is addressed both to the young men who serve in the Civilian Conservation Corps and to the interested public which is curious regarding the values of this form of educational work relief. For the former, the author emphasizes the worth-whileness of the experience—the fun, the challenges, the physical welfare, the social significance of the CCC program. The latter he enlightens by stressing the economic, educational, and civic outcomes and thus differentiates this form of depression activity from that of "made work" and home relief.

The author nowhere attempts to deal with fundamental questions of social psychology, of economic security for youths who have been through the camp experience, of the possible relation of the CCC program to potential fascism, or socialization of national resources, or other change in our fundamental economy. Such a treat-

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ment does not, of course, fit into the scope of this little book. But the question is one that will call for much clear thinking in the months to come.

The Citizen and His Government—A Study of Democracy in the United States, by JOHN A. LAPP AND ROBERT B. WEAVER. Newark: Silver, Burdett and Company, 1935, vii + 680 + xxxii pages, \$1.80.

The authors have prepared this text to encourage students to think of themselves as a vital force in the functioning of government as a living changing agency of the people for the management of their common affairs. The book consists of five parts: The Backgrounds and Development of American Government; The Means through Which We Govern Ourselves; Problems in the Functioning of Democracy; The Citizen and World Affairs; and Government in a Crisis. Each part is divided into units and each unit follows a pattern; it begins with a statement of the learning objective—the intellectual destination of the pupil—followed by the elements which enable him to reach that destination, followed by questions, problems, projects, and other activities calculated to test the student's mastery of the unit.

The weaknesses in such a method are two: the generalizations or learning objectives may not

all of them be completely acceptable to all competent social philosophers or scientists; even if they were, the requirement that all youths must individually find their way to the same generalization forbids the adventure of exploring hypotheses that do not conform to the preordained "intellectual destination" set forth by the authors.

With these reservations it is a pleasure to commend this volume wholeheartedly to teachers who are seeking a text that deals adequately and vigorously with a social science that is significant for continuing democracy.

Experiments in Reading (to accompany *Hidden Treasures in Literature*), by WILLIAM A. MCCALL, LUELLA B. COOK, AND GEORGE W. NORVELL. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1934, book one 137 pages; book two 118 pages; book three 116 pages, \$.40 each.

The primary purpose of these workbooks is to teach reading skills. From the first page of book one we are conscious that the authors intend to accomplish their purpose. Although written for children of junior-high and high-school age, it is so cleverly constructed that it appears fascinating to many of their elders. A few of the skills to be developed are: to understand and remember

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general explanations; to understand exact explanations; to recognize central meaning of paragraphs; to draw accurate inferences from reading. A space for scoring follows each experiment and students may measure their present position and growth by means of a reliable scale given to them here.

One of the assets of this series is that it is so organized that the books may be used over and over again, if necessary, by the use of blank paper to record answers.

MARIE F. HOAR

Interesting Letters—How to Write Them, by SHERWIN CODY. New York: The Gregg Publishing Company, 1934, 122 pages each book.

In these two small booklets we find good everyday examples of letters which provide teaching materials for seventh-, eighth-, and ninth-grade classes. All this material reflects real life situations and is interspersed with exercises, tests, and interesting devices for checking on the student's vocabulary and grammatical construction.

MARIE F. HOAR

Free Medical Care—Socialized Medicine (Volume II, Debater's Help Book), by E. C. BUEHLER. New York: Noble and Noble, 1935, 360 pages, cloth, \$2.00.

The author is director of forensics at the University of Kansas, and this "help book" was prepared primarily for the use of high-school debate teams. Your reviewer has only dull embers of interest in the fortunes of high-school debate teams, but he confesses a white-hot enthusiasm for this book. It is not for debaters, it is for everybody who is a doctor or expects to be one, and for everybody who is a doctor's patient or expects to be one. It is a workmanlike job, a symposium of the most outstanding articles available on both sides of the increasingly interesting question.

The book is not large enough, of course, to give more than a limited number (sixteen, to be exact) of articles representing various points of view; but these are supplemented by an annotated bibliography of thoroughly up-to-date and accessible material. About fifty pages are given to the author's definitions of terms and helpful directions to those who would get a comprehensive view of the problem.

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This is a text book, more highly specialized than most texts on social problems, but more valuable, perhaps, for that reason. That is, I can see how social science might profitably be taught by taking a class through an intensive study of six or eight major problems rather than trying to teach a notion or so about eighty or eight hundred of them. If we had a library of ten or twelve books, as well prepared as this one is, on ten or twelve major problems, we would be well endowed for an interesting experiment. And it is entirely possible that the debate, which had got formalized, routinized, and perverted from its proper uses may now become, since its revival and reformation, the method for this new approach to a realistic study of our changing culture.

J. C. D.

The New Method English Dictionary, by MICHAEL PHILIP WEST and JAMES GAR-ETH ENDICOTT. New York: Longmans, Green and Company (printed in Great Britain by The University Press, Aberdeen), 1935, 341 pages, 80 cents.

To one reasonably familiar with the much larger and more profusely illustrated dictionaries commonly bought for use in our high-school classrooms, this new book seems at first glance unimpressive. But it has points. It is a new work, not an adaptation of any older book. It is written especially for foreigners, the authors tell us in the preface. Bulletin IV of the Department of Educational Research of the Ontario College of Education, University of Toronto, is said to contain a technical account of the method of compilation of this dictionary and of the selection of its vocabulary.

The dictionary defines about 24,000 items—18,000 words and 6000 idioms. Its special features are its richness in examples and the care devoted to meanings and idioms of the commoner words, such as Get, Put, Take, etc. Most small English dictionaries economize space by compressing these commonest words (for the English-speaking person knows them); yet these words are the most troublesome to the foreigner and the most likely to be encountered. This dictionary economizes space by omitting the rare and highly technical words which the foreigner is unlikely to meet either in reading or in conversation. It omits also those derivatives and compounds whose meanings can readily be guessed.

Our Canadian cousins make a generous bow to American slang—both the evanescent slang and the more stable "Americanisms" are offered here. If you will be carping, you might go through it

and find that many of your favorite slang expressions are missing. Under "nut" you will find explained *A tough nut* and *Dead nuts on* (Sl.—very interested in). But where is the popular and interesting *Nuts to you!*—or *Nerts!*, as we say in Brooklyn. And though the dictionary gives us *NRA* and *D.T.'s*, it omits *F.D.R.*, *AAA*, and a lot of other alphabetical agencies.

This would be carping, of course, for the authors have done a significant piece of work within sharp limits they set themselves, for they have allowed themselves a vocabulary of only 1,490 words in which to write all explanations. "A list of these words will be found in the 'How to Use the New Method English Dictionary: A Teachers' Handbook' (price 6d.) Any one who knows these 1,490 words will be able to understand every explanation given in this dictionary."

Properly, this review should be written by some one who has an English vocabulary of about that number of words and is going through the difficult job of mastering Americanisms and the current argot. It is impossible for another to judge accurately how helpful the book may really be. But it is rather convincing, and I should like to see it used experimentally in some classes of English for foreign-born.

J. C. D.

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